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# The History Teacher's Magazine

EDITED UNDER THE SUPERVISION OF A COMMITTEE OF THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.

Volume VIII.  
Number 1.

PHILADELPHIA, JANUARY, 1917.

\$2.00 a year.  
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## CONTENTS

<b>The Social Studies in Secondary Education, Report by a Committee of the National Education Association</b>	<b>4</b>
I. Introduction	4
II. Social studies for years VII, VIII, and IX	6
A. Administrative Features	6
B. Geography and History in Grades VII and VIII	8
C. Civics for years VII-IX	9
III. Social Studies for years X, XI, XII,	15
A. Administrative Features	15
B. History	16
1. General Statement of Principles	16
2. Detailed Discussion of Principles	17
C. Problems of American Democracy	23
Historical Geography in College Classes	26
An Occasional Museum, by M. M. Fishback	30
Reports from the Historical Field	31
Notes; Pacific Coast Branch; Northwestern Association; Oklahoma Association; New York History Teachers; Training for Public Service; Correspondence.	
Periodical Literature, edited by Dr. G. B. Richards	34
List of History Teachers' Associations	34
Book Reviews, edited by Prof. W. J. Chase	35
Recent Historical Publications, listed by Dr. C. A. Coulomb	38

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# The Social Studies in Secondary Education

The greater part of this number of the MAGAZINE is given up to the text of the Report of the Committee on Social Studies of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National Education Association. This report was issued late in November, 1916, by the United States Bureau of Education as Bulletin No. 28, 1916, and copies can be obtained either from the bureau or by sending ten cents to the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.

No excuse is necessary for devoting so much space to this report. It is printed here not alone to save our readers the trouble of securing a copy from Washington, but more particularly to make sure that the text of the report be placed at the earliest possible date in the hands of the four thousand readers of the **MAGAZINE**. The subscribers to the **MAGAZINE** constitute by far the most alert and most progressive body of history teachers in the country. It is important that they have an early opportunity to study the report and give expression to their views of the advantages and disadvantages of the proposed plan. It is not thought desirable in this issue to make any editorial comment or criticism of the report.

All of the report is here printed except the Preface, and Part IV which deals with standards by which to test methods, with the preparation of teachers and with the availability of textbooks and other materials.

The actual editorial work on the report has been completed under the direction of Arthur William Dunn, special agent in Civic Education of the Bureau of Education, who has acted as secretary of the committee. The members of the committee are as follows:

**Thomas Jesse Jones, Chairman, United States Bureau  
of Education.**

Arthur William Dunn, Secretary, United States  
Bureau of Education.

**W. A. Aery, Hampton Institute, Hampton, Va.**

**J. Lynn Barnard, School of Pedagogy, Philadelphia.**

George C. Bechtel, Principal, Northwestern High School, Detroit, Mich.

**F. L. Boynton, Principal, High School, Deerfield, Mass.**

**E. C. Branson, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, N. C.**

**Henry R. Burch, West Philadelphia High School, Philadelphia.**

**F. W. Carrier, Somerville High School, Somerville, Mass.**

**Jessie C. Evans, William Penn High School for Girls,  
Philadelphia.**

**Frank P. Goodwin, Woodward High School, Cincinnati, O.**

W. J. Hamilton, Superintendent of Schools, Two Rivers, Wis.

Blanche C. Hazard, Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y.

**S. B. Howe, High School, Newark, N. J.**

Clarence D. Kingsley, State High School Inspector,  
Boston, Mass.

**J. Herbert Low, Manual Training High School,  
Brooklyn, N. Y.**

William H. Mace, Syracuse University, Syracuse,  
New York.

**William T. Morrey, Bushwick High School, Brooklyn, N. Y.**

**John Pettibone, High School, New Milford, Conn.**

James Harvey Robinson, Columbia University, New York.

**William A. Wheatley, Superintendent of Schools, Middletown, Conn.**

In the Preface the committee states that it "issues this report with the conviction that the secondary school teachers of social studies have a remarkable opportunity to improve the citizenship of the land. This conviction is based upon the fact that the million and a third secondary school pupils constitute probably the largest and most impressionable group in the country that can be directed to a serious and systematic effort, through both study and practice, to acquire the social spirit. If the two and a half million pupils of the seventh and eighth grades are included in the secondary group according to the six-and-six plan, the opportunity will be very greatly increased.

"The committee interprets this opportunity as a responsibility which can be realized only by the development in the pupil of a constructive attitude in the consideration of all social conditions. In facing the increasing complexity of society, it is most important that the youth of the land be steadied by an unwavering faith in humanity and by an appreciation of the institutions which have contributed to the advancement of civilization."

The MAGAZINE will gladly print in forthcoming numbers brief statements of the opinions of teachers upon the committee's report. If you think this report shows excellencies or dangerous tendencies, will you not freely use the columns of this paper to present your views to your fellow-teachers?

# Report of the Committee on Social Studies

## Of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National Education Association

### PART I.—INTRODUCTION.

1. *Definition of the social studies.*—The social studies are understood to be those whose subject matter relates directly to the organization and development of human society, and to man as a member of social groups.

2. *Aims of the social studies.*—The social studies differ from other studies by reason of their social content rather than in social aim; for the keynote of modern education is "social efficiency," and instruction in all subjects should contribute to this end. Yet, from the nature of their content, the social studies afford peculiar opportunities for the training of the individual as a member of society. Whatever their value from the point of view of personal culture, unless they contribute directly to the cultivation of social efficiency on the part of the pupil they fail in their most important function. They should accomplish this end through the development of an appreciation of the nature and laws of social life; a sense of the responsibility of the individual as a member of social groups, and the intelligence and the will to participate effectively in the promotion of the social well-being.

More specifically, the social studies of the American high school should have for their conscious and constant purpose the cultivation of good citizenship. We may identify the "good citizen" of a neighborhood with the "thoroughly efficient member" of that neighborhood; but he will be characterized, among other things, by a loyalty and a sense of obligation to his City, State, and Nation as political units. Again, "society" may be interpreted to include the human race. Humanity is bigger than any of its divisions. The social studies should cultivate a sense of membership in the "world community," with all the sympathies and sense of justice that this involves as among the different divisions of human society. The first step, however, toward a true "neighborliness" among nations must be a realization of national ideals, national efficiency, national loyalty, national self-respect, just as real neighborliness among different family groups depends upon the solidarity, the self-respect, and the loyalty to be found within each of the component families.

High national ideals and an intelligent and genuine loyalty to them should thus be a specific aim of the social studies in American high schools.

3. *The point of view of the committee.*—(1) The committee adheres to the view that it was appointed, not to "obtain justice" for a group of social studies as against other groups, or for one social study as against others, but to consider wherein such studies might be made to contribute most effectively to the purposes of secondary education. It believes that

the social studies require "socialization" quite as much as other studies, and that this is of greater moment than the number of social studies offered or the number of hours assigned to each.

The subject of civics may be taken to illustrate this point. Its avowed purpose is to train for citizenship. The various attempts to secure a more perfect fulfillment of this purpose by increasing the quantity offered, by making the subject required instead of elective, by transferring it from last year to first year of the high school or vice versa, by introducing it in the elementary course of study, by shifting the emphasis from the National Government to municipal government—such attempts have been more or less mechanical and superficial. Unless the subject matter and the methods of instruction are adapted to the pupil's immediate needs of social growth, such attempts avail little. What is true of civics is also true of the other social studies, such as history and economics.

(2) The committee has refrained from offering detailed outlines of courses, on the ground that they tend to fix instruction in stereotyped forms inconsistent with a real socializing purpose. The selection of topics and the organization of subject matter should be determined in each case by immediate needs. The attempt has been, therefore, to establish certain principles, to illustrate these as far as possible by examples from actual practice, and to stimulate initiative on the part of teachers and school administrators in testing proposed method or in judicious experiments of their own.

No sensible teacher of history asks how many facts he is to teach. No two teachers—if good ones—would teach the same number of facts or just the same facts to the same pupils or class, and much less to different classes. No sensible teacher asks what kind of facts he shall teach, expecting to receive in answer a tabulation of his material. He knows that general rules accompanied by suitable illustrations are the only useful answer to these questions. (Elementary course of study in geography, history, and civics, Indianapolis.)

(3) One principle the committee has endeavored to keep before it consistently throughout this report because of its fundamental character. It is contained in the following quotation from Prof. Dewey:

We are continually uneasy about the things we adults know, and are afraid the child will never learn them unless they are drilled into him by instruction before he has any intellectual use for them. If we could really believe that attending to the needs of present growth would keep the child and teacher alike busy, and would also provide the best possible guarantee of the learning needed in the future, transformation of educational ideals might soon be accomplished, and other desirable changes would largely take care of themselves.

The high-school course has heretofore been determined too largely by supposed future needs and too little by present needs and past experience. The important fact is not that the pupil is getting ready to live, but that he is living, and in immediate need of such mental and social nourishment and training as will enable him to adjust himself to his present social environment and conditions. By the very processes of present growth he will make the best possible provision for the future. This does not mean that educational processes should have no reference to the future. It does not mean, to use a concrete illustration, that a boy should be taught nothing about voting until he is 21 and about to cast his first ballot. It means merely that such instruction should be given at the psychological and social moment when the boy's interests are such as to make the instruction function effectively in his processes of growth. A distinction should be made between the "needs of present growth" and immediate, objective utility. As a boy's mental and social horizon broadens with the processes of education, he will become inquisitive about facts and relations perhaps long before he has direct use for them in the affairs of life. The best question that can be asked in class is the question that the pupil himself asks because he wants to know, and not the question the teacher asks because he thinks the pupil some time in the future ought to know.

(4) For effective social training in the high school more consideration must be given to its organic continuity with the work of the elementary school in the same field. Opinion differs as to the grades when the social studies as such should be introduced, especially in the case of civics. This question is beyond the scope of this committee's consideration, except in its relation to the seventh and eighth years. These years are now in some places included with the ninth year in the junior high school, and must, therefore, be considered in any plan for the reorganization of secondary education. But even where the junior high-school plan is not adopted, the foundations of secondary education must be laid in the years preceding the present high school.

4. *General outline of social studies for secondary schools.*—Assuming that provision has been made for the social aspect of education in Grades I-VI of the elementary school, the following general plan of social studies is proposed for the years VII-XII:

Junior cycle (years VII-IX):

- Geography.
- European history.
- American history.
- Civics.

Senior cycle (years X-XII):

- European history.
- American history.
- Problems of democracy—social, economic, and political.

5. *The "cycle" plan of organization—two three-year cycles preceded by an earlier six-year cycle.*—From the foregoing general outline it will be seen that the course of social studies proposed for the years

VII-IX constitutes a cycle to be followed by a similar cycle in the years X-XII, and presumably preceded by another similar cycle in the six elementary grades. This grouping coincides roughly with the physiological periods of adolescence, but is based chiefly upon the practical consideration that large numbers of children complete their schooling with the sixth grade and another large contingent with the eighth and ninth grades. The course recommended in this report aims to provide a comprehensive, and in a sense complete, course of social study for each period. Those pupils who continue through the third period cover the same cycle provided for in the first and second periods, but with broader horizon, new relations, and more intensive study.

The Philadelphia course of study now in preparation and soon to be published, and the Indianapolis course of study described in Bulletin, 1915, No. 17, United States Bureau of Education, illustrate with variations the cycle organization of the six elementary grades. Within this period the pupils get at least some picture of the development of civilization as typified in the customs, historic personages and dramatic events of ancient and modern nations. They also acquire the simpler elements of American history from the period of exploration to the present time. This historical study is made in close relation with geographical study. Civic and social relations, beginning with the simple relations of home life in the first grade and gradually including the elemental relations of the larger community life, form a continuous phase of the work. In the sixth year of the Philadelphia course emphasis is placed upon economic or vocational relations, largely through a concrete study of occupations. In the Indianapolis course a similar though perhaps less intensive study of occupations is made, chiefly in connection with geography (general and local) and with especial emphasis in the fourth, fifth, and sixth years; while in the sixth year a somewhat systematic though elementary study is made of the more important "elements of community welfare."

With such a course of study, the pupil who leaves school after completing the sixth grade will have acquired some experience with practically the whole range of social studies—history (both ancient and modern, European and American); government in its relations to community welfare; economics in its simpler occupational relations, and also on the side of saving, thrift, conservation; and even sociology in very elementary and concrete terms. Elementary as the course is, and inadequate as it may be from the point of view of the pupil's future social efficiency, it is doubtless all that he can well assimilate at his stage of mental and social growth.

It will now require only a glance at the outline of courses suggested for the years VII-IX and X-XII on pages 5, 6 and 15, of this report to make apparent without further discussion the completeness with which the cycle organization is provided for.

6. *Differentiation of courses.*—The course of study outlined is flexible and permits of differentiation to any extent necessary to meet the needs of characteristic groups of pupils. It is an open question how far such differentiation is desirable, especially in the years VII-IX. It is a fallacy, for example, to imagine that the children of native-born Americans need civic education any less than the children of immigrants; or that the pupils of a school in a purely residential suburb require instruction in industrial history or vocational civics any less than the pupils of a school in an industrial district. But the scope and emphasis of such courses may well vary in the different cases. It is conceivable that in a class of immigrant children more emphasis might be given to American history and less to European history than in a class of native children. In both European and American history the selection of topics for emphasis should, within certain limits at least, be made to meet industrial or other specific needs. As suggested on pages 13-14, community civics needs special adaptation to rural conditions and requirements.

The committee can not emphasize too strongly its belief in the desirability of such careful adjustment of courses to local and current circumstances. It is believed that the flexibility of the course of social studies offered and the principles suggested for the organization of subject matter (see especially under the section on History, pp. 16-17), lends themselves readily to such adjustment.

7. *Adaptation to the 8-4 and 6-3-3 plans of organization.*—The validity of the committee's recommendations and suggestions is not dependent upon the adoption of the junior and senior high-school organization. There is only one point at which the adoption or non-adoption of this organization would seem to make any difference in the completeness with which the course of social studies herein proposed for the years VII-IX could be carried out. If it is true that under the 8-4 organization more pupils are likely to leave school at the end of the eighth year than would be the case under the 6-3-3 organization, it would mean simply that a larger percentage of pupils would fail to complete the cycle of social studies provided for the years VII-IX.

The committee believes, however, that the very nature of its proposed course in civics in the ninth year will tend to keep in school, even under the 8-4 organization, many of those to whom the traditional history courses usually given in the ninth year would offer no inducement to remain. However, it is partly to meet the needs of those who, under either organization, leave school at the end of the eighth year that the committee urgently recommends the inclusion of an elementary course in community civics in that year. This course, if planned with that end in view, will consummate a complete, though necessarily abbreviated, cycle in the years VII-VIII. Let it be repeated, however, that one of the chief purposes of both eighth and ninth year civics should be to provide the pupil with a motive for the continuation of his education.

## PART II.—SOCIAL STUDIES FOR THE SEVENTH, EIGHTH AND NINTH YEARS.

### (A) ADMINISTRATIVE FEATURES.

Geography, history, and civics are the social studies that find a proper place in the seventh, eighth, and ninth years. The geography should be closely correlated with the history and civics, and should be thoroughly socialized. The history should include European as well as American history. The civics should be of the "community civics" type (see pp. 9-14, following). In addition, it is desirable to emphasize the social aspects of other studies, such as hygiene or other science, and even arithmetic. (For a description of "community arithmetic" see "Civic Education in Elementary Schools as Illustrated in Indianapolis," Bulletin, 1915, No. 17, United States Bureau of Education, pp. 23-26.)

1. *Alternative programs for years VII-IX.*—Opinion and practice vary as to the organization of the social studies in these three years. It is the belief of the committee that the organization should be adapted to local circumstances, and that no one plan should be recommended as best for every case. The following alternative plans are suggested; it is not intended, however, to preclude the possibility of other adjustments that local conditions may require.

#### Seventh year:

- |  |  |
|--|--|
| (1) Geography— $\frac{1}{2}$ year.<br>European history— $\frac{1}{2}$ year.  | $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{These two courses} \\ \text{may be taught in} \\ \text{sequence, or par-} \\ \text{allel through the} \\ \text{year.} \end{array} \right.$ |
| Civics—taught as a phase of the above and of other subjects, or segregated in one or two periods a week, or both.  |  |
| Or, (2) European history—1 year.<br>Geography—taught incidentally to, and as a factor in, the history.             |  |
| Civics—taught as a phase of the above, and of other subjects, or segregated in one or two periods a week, or both. |  |

#### Eighth year:

- |   |  |
|---|--|
| American history— $\frac{1}{2}$ year.<br>Civics— $\frac{1}{2}$ year.      | $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{These two courses may} \\ \text{be taught in sequence,} \\ \text{or parallel through the} \\ \text{year.} \end{array} \right.$ |
| Geography—taught incidentally to, and as a factor in, the above subjects. |  |

#### Ninth year:

- (1) Civics: Continuing the civics of the preceding year, but with more emphasis upon State, national, and world aspects (see pp. 11-12)— $\frac{1}{2}$  year.  
Civics: Economic and vocational aspects (see pp. 12-14)— $\frac{1}{2}$  year.  
History: Much use made of history in relation to the topics of the above courses.
- Or, (2) Civics—economic and vocational.
- |                   |   |
|-------------------|---|
| Economic history. | $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1 \text{ year, in se-} \\ \text{quence or} \\ \text{parallel.} \end{array} \right.$ |
|                   |   |

2. *Organization of social studies in the seventh and eighth years.*—The alternative programs given above

suggest three methods of organizing the social studies in the seventh and eighth years.

(a) By the first method, the three social studies run parallel to each other, with more or less direct dependence upon each other, and with a good deal of one subject taught as an aspect of the other two. This method is exemplified in the Indianapolis schools, according to their course of study in geography, history, and civics published in 1914, and explained in Bulletin, 1915, No. 17, United States Bureau of Education. In the seventh year geography occupies three periods a week throughout the year, alternating with European history on the other two days. Civics is taught only as a phase of the geography, history, and other subjects, with more or less attention to it in the opening exercises. In the eighth year United States history occupies three periods a week, alternating with civics on the other two days. Geography is taught in this year only as a factor in the other two subjects. It should be said in passing that while civics does not appear as a distinct subject in the Indianapolis schools until the eighth year, it is systematically taught as an aspect of other subjects throughout the elementary grades beginning with the first.

The aim in the Indianapolis elementary schools seems to be to make of education, not a process of instruction in a variety of subjects, but a process of living, of growth, during which the various relations of life are unfolded—civic, geographical, historical, ethical, vocational, etc. In the first grade, for example, the pupil does not even study "English" or "language" he merely does things, and talks about things, and hears and tells stories about things, the teacher alone being conscious that she is giving the child his first organized lessons in civic life, as well as in the use of the English language. (Civic Education in Elementary Schools as Illustrated in Indianapolis, Bulletin, 1915, No. 17 United States Bureau of Education, p. 9.)

Even in the eighth year, where civics appears as a separate "subject," alternating throughout the year with American history, the co-ordination is so close (in the hands of a skilful teacher) that the pupils are hardly conscious that they are studying two "subjects." They are rather studying certain phenomena of life in two aspects—historical and civic.

It is this aim that gives to the Indianapolis plan its chief distinction. It is perhaps an ideal aim. Its accomplishment, however, requires skilful teaching. It is only fair to say that even in Indianapolis there are principals and teachers who prefer the plan which existed in that city prior to the adoption of the present plan a year or two ago, and who, indeed, still follow it. This plan is next described.

(b) By this second plan the social studies are taken up in sequence. Civics occupies the entire attention (so far as the social studies are concerned) five days in the week, in the last half of the eighth year. It is preceded by the courses in history, and these in turn by geography. Of course geography also appears as an element in the history work, European and American. More or less civics instruction may be given prior to the last half of the eighth grade as a phase of history, geography, and other subjects.

The chief advantage claimed for this plan is the concentration and continuity of interest and attention. It is perhaps particularly important that attention be concentrated upon civics at the time just before the pupils enter high school or leave school altogether. This last argument may doubtless lose some of its force under the Junior High School plan of organization, if it be assumed that the latter would keep pupils in school at least a year longer and would provide further civic training in that year. At all events, of the two plans described, the second is perhaps more likely to be effective in the hands of the great majority of teachers, and especially of those who are inexperienced.

(c) A third general plan of organization, which admits of variations, is characterized by the introduction of civics as a distinct subject in the lower grades for one or more periods a week, and its continuation in increasing amount until the climax is reached in the seventh and eighth years. A plan of this kind is now being developed in Philadelphia. The advantages claimed for it are the cumulative effect of continuous civics instruction through the pupil's early years, and the definiteness secured by fixing attention upon the subject as such, even if for only one or two periods a week, instead of depending upon the interest and skill of the teacher to develop the subject incidentally to the teaching of other subjects.

Objections that have been raised to this plan are (1) the multiplication of "subjects" in the elementary curriculum; (2) the difficulty of maintaining interest and securing effective results from subjects taught one or two periods a week; (3) the belief that the very fact of designating a few periods a week for the study of "civics" would tend to the neglect of the civic aspects of instruction in other subjects. Data are not available to prove the validity of these objections.

3. *Time allotment for civics in years VII-IX.*—An objection has been raised to the amount of civics recommended for the years VII-IX on the ground that it is out of proportion to the time available for the social studies. This objection appears to be due in part to a misconception of the meaning of the term, and of the scope of the work intended to be included under it. The term "community civics" has arisen (it was not invented by this committee) to distinguish the new type of civics from the traditional "civil government," to which the name civics was also applied. Unfortunately, the term has been interpreted by many as applying to a purely local study. From what is said on pages 10 and 11, it should be clear that the committee is not recommending a course, even in the eighth year, that is restricted to a study of "the pupil's own town;" and much less that it is recommending two consecutive years of such study. The proposed ninth year course (see pp. 11-14) is "civics" in that it is a specific course of training for citizenship; it is "community civics" solely in the sense of maintaining the point of view, the spirit, the general method, though not the same content in detail, which characterize the earlier course to which the name has been applied.



Although the committee recommends a course in civics in both eighth and ninth years, it does not necessarily follow that there must be or should be two full years of the subject. The committee has only suggested a half-year course in the eighth year (a daily period for one-half year, or two or three periods a week for the entire year). And while it has suggested a course for the ninth year that, in the committee's opinion, might well occupy the entire year under certain circumstances, this course is capable of adjustment to half-year requirements when conditions make it desirable. (See p. 6).

#### (B) GEOGRAPHY AND HISTORY IN THE SEVENTH AND EIGHTH YEARS.

There are here given, with some comment, extracts from the course of study in geography and history in the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades of the Indianapolis schools, as published in 1914. These illustrate, as well as anything available to the committee, the socialization of geography and the co-ordination between geography, history, and civics. It has seemed well to include the sixth year in order to show the continuity of method from the elementary to the secondary period and because of its relation to the cycle organization.

*Sixth-grade geography.*—The geography of this year includes a study of Africa and South America in the first half and of the United States in the second half.

By the time children reach the sixth grade they are sufficiently mature to approach the study of a continent or country with some problem in mind. Facts are needed in the solution of this problem; they should not, however, be given as isolated scraps of knowledge, but should be made to contribute to the working out of the problem.

The most vital problems, however, grow out of current events that stimulate questions in the minds of the children. Therefore problems may change from year to year.

The following may be taken as typical of the problems studied in this year:

1. Considering the proximity of Africa to Europe, why have there been so few settlements and explorations until recently?
2. Egypt was once the leading power of the world, to-day a country of little influence and under the domination of England. Why?
3. No part of the world is attracting more attention than South America. What are the reasons?
4. Brazil, a country nearly as large as the United States and known to European countries for over 400 years, has a population only one-fourth as large as that of the United States and is just beginning to take a prominent part in international affairs. Reasons?
5. What are the factors which have been largely influential in developing the United States into a great industrial nation?

To illustrate the method by which such problems are developed, the following suggestive outline for the fourth problem enumerated above is given:

- I. Why was the development of Brazil so retarded?
  - A. Character and policy of early settlers.
    1. Portuguese influence.
    2. Policy toward Indians.

3. Introduction of slaves and consequent predominance of negro labor.
- B. Location and climate retarded development.
  1. Largely in Southern Hemisphere.
  2. Chiefly in Torrid Zone.
- C. Topography retarded development.
  1. Forests.
  2. Mountains parallel to southeastern coast.
  3. Great plateau beyond wall of woods and rock.
  4. Coastal plain very narrow.
- D. Drainage helped to retard development.
- II. What factors are contributing to its great growth to-day?
  - A. Its location.
    1. In South America.
      - a. All but two countries of South America border on Brazil.
      - b. Great extent of coast line.
    2. Nearer to Europe and North America than the other two progressive countries of South America.
  - B. Topography and climate.
    1. Modification of climate by mountains and table-lands.
    2. Mountains accessible to short railroads connecting inland towns with coast.
    3. Southern part temperate and healthful.
  - C. Character of later settlers.
    1. Over 200,000 Germans in Rio do Sul.
    2. Even greater number of Italians; work on and own coffee plantations.
    3. Portuguese, Spaniards, Syrians, etc.
  - D. Great natural wealth.
    1. Forest resources.
    2. Mines.
    3. Agricultural resources.
    4. Grazing lands.
  - E. Increased transportation facilities.
    1. Development of navigation on the Amazon.
    2. Navigation of Paraguay River.
    3. Few railroads, but increasing in number.
    4. Steamship lines to Europe and North America. Principal harbors and exports.

*Sixth-grade history.*—The prominence of the historical factor in the geography of this year will be suggested by the typical outline given above. In addition to this "incidental" historical study, the period of discovery and colonization is studied in story form parallel with the geography of the first half year, and that from the Revolution on in the second half year parallel with the geography of the United States. The stories of Livingstone, Cecil Rhodes, Stanley and Kitchener are taken up along with the geography of Africa. A very elementary textbook in history is used for the first time in this grade.

It should be remarked that this sixth-year history work is the culmination of the elementary six-year cycle, which began with a study of the meaning of national holidays and of Hiawatha's childhood in the first two grades, was continued in the third and fourth grades with pioneer stories and biography from American history, and in the fifth grade with the elements of European and Oriental history, based on "Ten Boys." In the fifth grade, also, the modern awakening of Japan is studied, with the story of "Perry and Japan" as a basis.

**Seventh-grade geography.**—The geography of the first half of the seventh grade is a study of "Some prominent nations of the world," including, for example, Holland, France, Italy, Austria, Hungary, Switzerland, China, Japan, Argentina, Brazil. In the second half of the year, "The world in general," "The conditions of commerce," and "Four great nations of the world—British Empire, German Empire, Russian Empire, the United States"—are the subjects of study. A general geography and a commercial geography are used as texts to supply the material for study. The method of study is the same as in the sixth year. Some typical problems are:

In spite of its size, Holland is one of the great mercantile nations of the world. Show why the Dutch were compelled to seek their fortunes in trade and why they were so successful.

The Argentine Republic has a better opportunity for future development than any other country of South America. Why?

The study of "The world in general" is organized around such topics as—

- The sea, the great commercial highway.
- Causes that give rise to commerce.
- Natural conditions that affect commerce.
- Human control of commerce.
- Means of transportation.

The study of the British Empire is organized around the following main topics:

- Size and population.
- Wide distribution of territory.
- Principal parts of the Empire.
- How the parts are helpful to one another.
- Means of knitting the parts together.
- Relation of the Empire to the rest of the world, especially to the United States.

Among the central topics for the study of the United States are:

- What has caused it to become almost self-sustaining?
- What has caused it to become one of the great commercial powers of the world?
- Its present commercial status.
- Conservation the great problem of the future if the present position at home and abroad is to be maintained.

**Seventh-grade history.**—Again the strong historical element in the geography of this year is to be noted. History, however, is also given a separate place throughout the year. In the history study geography becomes an essential factor.

Owing to the use of different texts no attempt is made to outline the work in history of the 7B grade in detail. The point of view used in teaching this work should, however, be the same throughout.

In his "Moral principles in education," Dewey says: "History is vital or dead to the child according as it is, or is not, presented from the sociological standpoint. When treated simply as a record of what has passed and gone, it must be mechanical, because the past, as past, is remote. Simply as the past there is no motive for attending to it. The ethical value of history teaching will be measured by the extent to which past events are made the means of understanding the present." No history, therefore, should be treated as though it had meaning or value in itself, but should constantly be made to show its relation or contribution to the present. . . .

In the work of this grade make the children feel that the history of our country is a part of the history of the world and that it had its beginnings many centuries before its discovery. . . .

Accordingly, the elements of European history, which are studied throughout this grade, are organized under the general title, "European beginnings in American history," and are treated as such.

**Eighth-grade history.**—Geography has no place in this grade as a separate subject, though it is always an important factor in the study of history. The history of this year is American history, taken up systematically in connection with a text. A somewhat full suggestive outline is given in the course of study, but need not be repeated here. The spirit controlling the history instruction in this grade is the same as that which controls in the preceding grade.

The characteristic feature of this year is the introduction of "community civics" as a separate subject throughout the year, and its close co-ordination with the history. This means primarily that the history of the Nation is treated as the story of the growth of a national "community," involving all the "elements of welfare" with which the pupils are made familiar in their civics work, the same development of means of co-operation, especially through government, and so on. More particularly, it means that special aspects of civic life and organization are emphasized in connection with those periods of American history in which they are most significant. The pupils find, for example, that the motives that led to exploration and colonization (whether on the Atlantic coast or in the far West) were the same as those which have led to the development of their own local community and State, and that the process of development is the same in the one case as in the other. Advantage is taken of the period of development of transportation and communication to emphasize the importance of these factors from the point of view of the study of the same topics in civics.

Before leaving the subject of geography and history in the seventh and eighth years, attention should be called to the emphasis that is given in the Indianapolis course of study to economic facts and relations, not only in the subjects of geography and history, but also in civics. This has an important relation to the development of the same field of social study in the later cycle of the years X-XII (see pp. 16, 28).

#### (C) CIVICS FOR YEARS VII-IX.

1. *Special report on community civics.*—A special committee of the Committee on Social Studies has prepared a detailed report on the aims, methods, and content of community civics adapted particularly to the eighth and ninth grades.<sup>1</sup> This special report has been approved by the Committee on Social Studies,

<sup>1</sup> This committee consisted of J. Lynn Barnard, School of Pedagogy, Philadelphia; F. W. Carrier, Somerville (Mass.) High School; Arthur W. Dunn, specialist in civic education, United States Bureau of Education; and Clarence D. Kingsley, high-school inspector, Massachusetts Board of Education.

adopted as a part of its present general report, and issued as a manual on "The Teaching of Community Civics" in Bulletin, 1915, No. 28, United States Bureau of Education. Its availability in that bulletin makes unnecessary, in the present report, a detailed description of the course and its methods. Some of the essential features, however, are here summarized.

(a) *Significance of the term "community civics."*—Community civics lays emphasis upon the local community because (1) it is the community with which every citizen, especially the child, comes into most intimate relations, and which is always in the foreground of experience; (2) it is easier for the child, as for any citizen, to realize his membership in the local community, to feel a sense of personal responsibility for it, and to enter into actual co-operation with it, than is the case with the national community.

But our Nation and our State are communities, as well as our city or village, and a child is a citizen of the larger as of the smaller community. The significance of the term "community civics" does not lie in its geographical implications, but in its implication of community relations, of a community of interests. . . . It is a question of point of view, and community civics applies this point of view to the study of the national community as well as to the study of the local community.

(b) *Aims of community civics.*—The aim of community civics is to help the child to know his community—not merely a lot of facts about it, but the meaning of his community life, what it does for him, and how it does it, what the community has a right to expect from him, and how he may fulfill his obligation, meanwhile cultivating in him the essential qualities and habits of good citizenship.

More specifically this aim is analyzed as follows:

To accomplish its part in training for citizenship, community civics should aim primarily to lead the pupil (1) to see the importance and significance of the elements of community welfare in their relations to himself and to the communities of which he is a member; (2) to know the social agencies, governmental and voluntary, that exist to secure these elements of community welfare; (3) to recognize his civic obligations, present and future, and to respond to them by appropriate action.

A unique feature of the method of community civics described in this report lies in the fact that there is the closest relation between these three essential aims and the three steps by means of which each of the main topics is to be taught (see d, below).

(c) *Content of community civics.*—A characteristic feature of community civics is that it focusses attention upon the "elements of community welfare" rather than upon the machinery of government. The latter is discussed only in the light of a prior study of the "elements of welfare," and in relation to them. The "elements of welfare" afford the organizing principle for this new type of civics.

It is suggested that the following elements of welfare be studied as topics: (1) Health; (2) Protection of life and property; (3) Recreation; (4) Education; (5) Civic beauty; (6) Wealth; (7) Communication; (8) Transportation; (9) Migration; (10) Charities; (11) Correction.

In addition, the course may well include the following topics dealing with the mechanism of community agencies: (12) How governmental agencies are conducted; (13) How governmental agencies are financed; (14) How voluntary agencies are conducted and financed.

(d) *Methods of community civics.*—I. Social facts upon which the method should be based:

(1) The pupil is a young citizen with real present interests at stake. . . . It is the first task of the teacher, therefore, not to create an interest for future use, but to demonstrate existing interests and present citizenship.

(2) The pupil as a young citizen is a real factor in community affairs. . . . Therefore it is a task of the teacher to cultivate in the pupil a sense of his responsibility, present as well as future.

(3) If a citizen has an interest in civic matters and a sense of his personal responsibility, he will want to act. Therefore the teacher must help the pupil to express his conviction in word and deed. He must be given an opportunity . . . to live his civics, both in the school and in the community outside.

(4) Right action depends not only upon information, interest, and will, but also upon good judgment. Hence the young citizen must be trained to weigh facts and to judge relative values, both in regard to what constitute the essential elements in a situation and in regard to the best means of meeting it.

(5) Every citizen possesses a large amount of unorganized information regarding community affairs. . . . It is, therefore, important to teach the pupils how to test and organize their knowledge.

(6) People are . . . most ready to act upon those convictions that they have helped to form by their own mental processes and that are based upon their own experience and observation. Hence the teacher should . . . lead the class: (1) To contribute facts from their own experience; (2) To contribute other facts gathered by themselves; (3) To use their own reasoning powers in forming conclusions; and (4) To submit these conclusions to criticism.

(7) The class has the essential characteristics of a community. Therefore the method by which the class exercises are conducted is of the utmost importance in the cultivation of civic qualities and habits. . . .

## II. Three steps in teaching an element of welfare:

(1) *Approach to the topic.*—In beginning the study of an element of welfare the teacher should lead the pupils to realize its importance to themselves, to their neighborhood, and to the community, and to see the dependence of the individual upon social agencies. Much depends upon the method of approach. The planning of an approach appropriate to a given topic and applicable to a given class calls for ingenuity and resourcefulness. In this bulletin approaches to various topics are suggested by way of illustration, but the teacher should try to find another approach whenever he thinks the one suggested is not the best one for the class.

(2) *Investigation of agencies.*—The knowledge of the class should now be extended by a concrete and more or less detailed investigation of agencies such as those suggested in the bulletin. These investigations should consist largely of first-hand observation and study of local conditions. The agencies suggested under each topic are so many that no attempt should be made to have the class as a whole study them all intensively. Such an attempt would result in superficiality, kill interest, and defeat the purpose of the course. . . .

(3) *Recognition of responsibility.*—A lesson in community civics is not complete unless it leaves with the pupil a sense of his personal responsibility and results in right action. To attain these ends is perhaps the most difficult and delicate task of the teacher. It is discussed here as the third step in teaching an element of welfare; in practice, however, it is a process coincident with the first two steps and resulting from them. If the work suggested in the foregoing paragraphs on "Approach" and "Investigation of agencies" has been well done, the pupil's sense of responsibility, his desire to act, and his knowledge of how to act will thereby have been developed. Indeed, the extent to which they have been developed is in a measure a test of the effectiveness of the approach and the study of agencies.

2. *Ninth-year civics.*—When provision is made for community civics in the eighth year the way is prepared for work in the ninth year that would not otherwise be possible. The work of the ninth year should build upon, or grow out of, the eighth-year course; but it should have a broader horizon, develop new points of view and new relations, and emphasize aspects of social and civic life that were only lightly touched upon or wholly omitted in the earlier course. Incidentally, also, this ninth-year course should lay substantial foundations for the social studies of succeeding years.

(a) *Amplification of national concepts.*—The reaction against the exclusive and formal study of national government and the increasing attention given to the study of local community relations have resulted in a noticeable tendency to minimize the study of civics in a national sense. It would be inexpressibly unfortunate if the study of local community life and local civic relations should supplant a study of national community life and national civic relations. The two aspects of civic life should clearly supplement each other. While we are impressing the pupil with the importance of his local civic relations and utilizing them as a means of cultivating fundamental civic concepts and habits, we should not allow this to divert attention from the increasingly intimate relations between local and national interests, and the increasing importance of a recognition by the individual of his responsibility for the national welfare.

It is extremely difficult for the average citizen in a democracy to think in terms of national interest, especially when there is any apparent conflict between it and the local or group interest. An illustration of this is seen in the local influence brought to bear upon the members of the National Congress which often prevent them from voting on public questions in the interest of the Nation as a whole when it seems to be antagonistic to the interests of the local districts. Questions of health, of education, of industry, can no longer be considered in their local bearings alone, but must be dealt with in the light of national policy and to the end of national efficiency. As our population grows, means of communication perfected and the interests of the individual more closely interwoven with the interests of others, the opportunities for friction and conflict increase. So much the greater is the necessity for training the pupil to recognize the common general interest in the midst

of conflicting group interests and for cultivating the will to subordinate the latter to the former.

On the other hand, there is another tendency which, though good in itself, sometimes has a tendency to undermine our sense of the importance of national solidarity. This is the conception of "internationalism," of "humanity as greater than its divisions," of a "world community." This conception indeed needs cultivation, as suggested in the following section; but it is necessary to keep our minds upon the elemental fact that before there can be effective "internationalism" there must be efficient and self-respecting nationalism; that the first step toward the realization of a "world community" must be the cultivation of sound ideals, and of efficiency in attaining these ideals, on the part of the several nations which must constitute the "world community."

The word "patriotism" has been much abused; but it is a good word. Instead of avoiding it because of its abuse, and instead of consciously or unconsciously giving young citizens the impression that the thing for which the word stands has somehow lost its significance, every effort should be made to imbue it with real meaning and to make it a potent influence in the development of a sound national life. The committee submits that this should be a definite aim of secondary education, and that one of the means of attaining it is by applying to the study of our national interests, activities, and organization the point of view, the spirit, and the methods of community civics. This may be done in some measure in the eighth year and earlier, but it may be accomplished more fully and more effectively in the ninth year, and later, on the basis of the earlier work.

(b) *Amplification of world interests.*—As individuals within a community, or local communities within a State, or the States constituting the Nation, are dependent upon one another and are bound together into the larger community life by their common interests and co-operative action, so it can easily be shown that nations are becoming more and more closely dependent upon each other. Common world interests need emphasis, world sympathies need cultivation. Pupils will be quite prepared for instruction to this end on the basis of the principles developed in community civics. Such study should be concrete and based upon current events and problems. It offers a socially important line of development, and every available opportunity to this end should be seized upon. (See also under "History," pp. 16, 17.)

(c) *Civic relations of vocational life.*—Still another opportunity presented in the ninth year is for the stressing of the civic relations of vocational life. There is evidence that, as a rule, ninth-year pupils have begun to think more or less earnestly about what they are "going to do," even though they may not have made any connection in their minds between their future vocations and the particular studies they are taking. Much of the mortality that occurs during the eighth and ninth years is due to the failure of pupils and parents to see the economic value of the high-

school course. An opportunity exists to make high-school education seem "worth while" by taking the budding vocational or economic interest as one point of departure.

It is one of the essential qualities of the good citizen to be self-supporting, and through the activities necessary to his self-support to contribute efficiently to the world's progress. Not only is it important that this fact be emphasized in the civic education of the youth, but it is also appropriate that he be given as much enlightenment as possible to assist him in choosing his vocation wisely from the standpoint of social efficiency as well as from that of personal success.

The question of vocational guidance is very much in the foreground at present. While there is general agreement that the young need "guidance" for the vocational aspect of life, as for its other aspects, there is wide divergence of opinion as to the nature of this guidance and the means by which it may best be given. The committee on social studies believes that education as a whole should take account of vocational needs and should contribute to the preparation of the youth for an intelligent choice of vocation and for efficiency in it. As for the ninth-year study now under consideration, the committee is here interested in its vocational guidance aspect only as an incident to the broader social and civic training of the youth. If it can be made to contribute anything to his guidance toward a wise choice of vocation and intelligent preparation for it, it is that much gain.

The chief purpose of the phase of the ninth-year work now being emphasized should be the development of an appreciation of the social significance of all work; of the social value and interdependence of all occupations; of the social responsibility of the worker, not only for the character of his work but for the use of its fruits; of the opportunities and necessity for good citizenship in vocational life; of the duty of the community to the worker; of the necessity for social control, governmental and otherwise, of the economic activities of the community; and of the part that government actually plays in regulating the economic life of the community and of the individual. In other words, the work here proposed is an application of community civics to a phase of individual and community life that is now coming into the foreground of the pupil's interest. It has for its background the earlier work, and differs from it primarily in the larger emphasis given to the economic interest and its resulting activities. The other aspects of community life dealt with in the earlier course should receive renewed attention—the family, the protection of life, health, and property, education, recreation, etc.; but even they may be approached from the point of view of their relations to the activities and arrangements involved in "getting a living."

The term "vocational civics" has been suggested for this phase of the ninth-year work. The term is hardly adequate, however, since it is as important at this time to give instruction regarding the civic responsibility connected with the use of wealth as it is regarding responsibility in its production.

Community civics deals with real situations and relations in the pupil's own life. This vocational or economic phase of the subject should be no exception. It may well be approached through an examination of occupations or industries in which the pupils have some direct interest—those for which the several members of the class have a predilection, those in which their parents are engaged, or those of most importance in the immediate community.

Nowhere has a course in vocational civics been found that seems fully to satisfy the requirements postulated. Some steps have been taken in this direction, however, and, as an illustration of what has actually been done, reference may be made to the work of Superintendent William A. Wheatley, of the Middletown (Conn.) public schools.

*"Vocational enlightenment" at Middletown, Conn.*—In the Middletown High School a half-year course has been introduced in the first year under the title of "A Survey of Vocations," or "Vocational Enlightenment." It consists of three parts:

1. Consideration of the importance of vocational information from the viewpoint of the individual and society, the characteristics of a good vocation, and how to study vocations.

2. Detailed treatment of 80 or 90 professions, trades, and occupations, grouped under agriculture, commerce, railroad-ing, civil service, manufacturing, machine trades, engineering, building trades, learned professions, miscellaneous and new openings.

3. Practical discussion of choosing a life work, preparation for that work, securing a position, and efficient service and its reward.

In studying each of the vocations selected, we touch upon its healthfulness, remuneration, value to society, and social standing, as well as upon the natural qualifications general education, and special preparation necessary for success. We investigate at first hand as many as possible of the vocations found in our city and vicinity. Each pupil is encouraged to bring from home first-hand and, as far as practicable, "inside" facts concerning his father's occupation. Local professional men, engineers, business men, manufacturers, mechanics, and agriculturists are invited to present informally and quite personally the salient features of their various vocations.

In the class exercise of the mechanical engineer such topics as these are discussed:

Which of the three engineers so far studied renders society the greatest service? Which is most necessary to your own community? Which one's work seems most attractive? What natural qualifications, general education, and special training are necessary? What subjects should constitute a high-school course preparatory to this profession? What subjects do the best technical schools demand for entrance? What advantages and disadvantages are there in preparing for this profession in a co-operative school and shop course? What kind of work during the summer would serve best to determine aptitude for it? Difference between expert machinist and mechanical engineer? What is a contracting engineer? etc.

Superintendent Wheatley says of this course that—

Besides being intrinsically interesting to the pupils, it gives them greater respect for all kinds of honorable work, helps them to choose more wisely their life work, convinces them of the absolute necessity for a thorough preparation



before entering any vocation, and holds to the end of the high-school course many who would otherwise drop out early in the race.

The committee would encourage experiment along this line. It would, however, repeat its suggestion that in the further development of such course particular attention be given to its broader social and civic implications; that instruction in vocations from the point of view of individual success be made not the end but a means to a more fundamental social education. The approach should be through a consideration of the services rendered by any particular vocation rather than from the point of view of remuneration. It is a principle no less important that the vocation, if it plays its true part in the life of the individual, is the chief means for the development of personality; consequently the pupil should be taught to seek a vocation that will call forth his best efforts. There should be something of the personal challenge in "vocational enlightenment."

**8. Adaptation of community civics to rural conditions.**—Community civics has been developed principally to meet urban needs. There is need for an adaptation of the subject to rural conditions. The community relations of the rural youth are different from those of the city youth. In a sense they are simpler. They also seem more vague. Their very simplicity apparently adds to the difficulty of developing a systematic course in community civics. Furthermore, the teachers in rural schools are often less experienced and less readily recognize the opportunities and materials for civic training.

Prof. J. F. Smith, of the Berea College (Ky.) Normal School, has successfully developed a course in community civics to meet local rural conditions. One of his lesson plans on roads is given in Bulletin, 1915, No. 28, United States Bureau of Education, page 39, and is here reproduced because of its suggestiveness.

In this study numerous photographs were used, walks were taken over good and bad roads, and the pupils and teachers actually did a piece of road work.

Study and report on condition of roads in the community. Draw a map of the community, indicating roads. Which are dirt roads, rock roads, other kinds? Which are well graded, well crowned? Note side ditches; are they adequate? Note culverts and bridges. Estimate miles of road in the community, public and private.

Study road-making material in the community. Note places where limestone is found; sandstone, slate, gravel. Are these materials accessible?

Find out cost of hauling in the community. Consult wagoners and learn charges per 100 pounds for freight and farm produce. Can farmers afford to market produce at present cost of cartage? Find out how much freight is hauled into the community annually and compute amount paid for this. How long will wagon and set of harness last on the roads? How long on good roads? Difference in cost for 10 years. How much could people who buy supplies afford to spend on road upkeep each year in order to cut down freight rates?

Compare cost of hauling here with cost in European countries where the best roads exist. What overtax do the people have to pay? Note that this overtax is in the form of higher prices for household necessities and in smaller profits for farm produce.

**Road building:** Determine kind of road; the location; grades; how grades affect the haul; the drainage, level and steep roads, side ditches; culverts, subdrainage, crown; actual construction, tools, funds, means employed.

**Road maintenance:** Kind of material to use; regular attention necessary; the tools.

What good roads mean to a community; the economic problem. How they enhance the value of land. Means of communication. Better social life.

The history of the development of roads, canals, and railways in your State and in the Nation, in its relation to the growth of community spirit and co-operation, will be fruitful. What effect did the steam railway have upon the development of canals? Why? Show how the Panama Canal tends to unite our Nation more firmly. Study the problems of rapid transportation in cities and their relation to various phases of city life. Also the effects of the parcel post and of electric interurban lines on the welfare of farmers and city dwellers. Make a comprehensive study of the work of the Federal Government in promoting and safeguarding transportation. The ship-purchase bill and the Government ownership of railways and of street railway lines afford material for discussion and debate.

It is probable that the rural citizen comes into direct contact with State and National Governments with greater relative frequency than does the urban citizen, whose life is largely regulated by the municipality. Under the topic, "Protection of property," for example, the following discussion was introduced in rural classes in Delaware:

The United States Department of Agriculture, in a recent report, estimates that \$795,100,000 worth of damage was done by insects to the crops of this country in a single year. What insects, birds, and animals are destructive of property in your community? What plant and animal diseases are prevalent in your locality or State? Investigate the work of your State agricultural college to prevent loss from these causes. (Get reports and other publications directly from the college. Ask the children whether their fathers receive publications.) Is there any department of your State government or any State officer whose work contributes to the protection of property against such enemies? Investigate and report on the work of the Federal Department of Agriculture for the protection of property against destruction by the causes named. Why should the Federal Government interest itself in this matter in your community? (Reports on this subject may be obtained directly from the department. These reports may also be in your local library.) Protection of birds; value to the farmer of insect-eating birds.

Under "Fire protection" the following topics were developed in the same classes:

Show how the farmer is largely dependent upon his own efforts and the friendly co-operation of neighbors? Contrast with the elaborate arrangement in cities. Why the difference? Point out the extreme importance of fire prevention in rural communities. Value of the telephone as a means of fire protection. If you live in a village or a small town, describe the arrangements for fire protection; method of alarm; water supply; bucket brigade; volunteer companies; etc. Compare with the conditions of the farm and of large cities. Have the children find out whether their fathers' property is insured. In what companies? Where are the main offices of these companies? (Probably in distant cities or States.) Discuss the methods of insurance, to show the wide-spread co-operation through the payment of premiums. Is there a grange in your community? Does it provide a means of insurance? If so, describe it.

Under loss from storm, flood, frost, etc.:

Is it possible to get insurance against loss from such causes? Do any of your parents have insurance of this kind? What relation do the weather reports issued by the National Government have to the protection of property? Does your father receive weather reports by mail? If not, where may you find these reports? Investigate and report on the work of the Weather Bureau. (Information may be obtained directly from the Weather Bureau, Department of Agriculture, Washington.)

Urban conditions should not be entirely neglected even in rural schools, because rural life and urban life are closely dependent upon each other. The material selected for study, however, should be related to the child's experience as far as possible. For example, in rural schools in the neighborhood of Wilmington, Del., the following statement from the report of the Wilmington Board of Health was made a basis for discussion:

During the year 1914 there were 142 cases of typhoid fever, with 122 deaths. Our report for this year shows an increase of 76 cases over the previous year. This increase was due to the prevalence of typhoid in New Castle County, and we feel that Wilmington was particularly fortunate in not having an epidemic, as practically all milk and vegetable products supplied to Wilmington come from this agricultural district.

Again, from the report of the Wilmington City Board of Health was taken the classification of municipal waste into garbage, ashes, rubbish, and trade waste, with the requirement that these be kept separate:

Compare these provisions for the city of Wilmington with the needs and conditions of a small community like your own. Refer to what is said about other cities and compare with conditions and arrangements in your own town. How is the garbage from your home disposed of? Is it done by public provision or left to the individual householder? Whether it is done publicly or privately, note the necessity for co-operation on the part of the people. Is the garbage removed in a way to protect health and to avoid annoyance to your own families and neighbors? Is it important that garbage and other kinds of waste be kept separate in a small community? Are there laws or ordinances in your town to regulate the matter of garbage? What means can you think of to improve your own home methods of caring for garbage?

4. *Relation of civics to history.*—The co-ordination of geography, history, and civics instruction in the years VII-IX and earlier has been referred to in preceding pages (pp. 6-8). The application to instruction in history of the principles which have already vitalized instruction in civics is discussed in detail in later pages (pp. 16, 17). The principles there discussed, the committee believes, are equally pertinent to history instruction in both junior and senior cycles. The purpose of the present section is to emphasize the peculiar value of the civics proposed for the junior cycle from the standpoint of historical study.

History as it is usually taught in the first year of the high school is no better adapted to the educational requirements of that age than the old-time civil government. The committee further maintains that, even from the standpoint of the subsequent high-school courses in history, the latter should be pre-

ceded by a course in civics of the type described above. Children live in the present and not in the past. The past becomes educational to them only as it is related to the present. Hero stories and pioneer stories from history are of use in the early grades because children react naturally to them. Individuals are interested in the history of government, of education, of commerce, of industry, or of democracy, in proportion as they have a present interest in these things. Community civics endeavors to establish a consciousness of present community relations before discussing the more remote development of these relations.

On the other hand, the history of a thing may add to its present interest. Railroads assume a new significance when compared with the means of transportation in colonial times, or with the road system of the Roman Empire. Community civics affords opportunity for the actual use of much historical matter, for the development of the "historical sense," and for the creation of a desire to know more history. The best time to introduce history in the education of the child is when it is of immediate use. The traditional history course has given to the child a mass of facts, chronologically arranged, because, in the judgment of the adult, these facts may some time be useful, or for the purposes of that vague thing, "general culture." Community civics affords opportunity to use history to illuminate topics of immediate interest.

Local history finds its best opportunity in connection with community civics. There is hardly a topic in community civics that may not be made clearer by looking back to the simpler stages of its development. For developing an appreciation of what history means and for giving historical perspective to the present, local history is as useful as any other history. The most effective courses in community civics make large use of local history. In 1910 the work of keeping Philadelphia clean was—

largely in the hands of a bureau of surveys, which has constructed over 1,200 miles of sewers at a cost of nearly \$35,000,000, and of a bureau of highways and street cleaning, which, in 1909, employed a contractor to clean the streets of the city and to remove all ashes for \$1,199,000; and to remove all garbage for \$488,988.

Nothing could make so clear the statement that this complex and costly machinery of government is merely a means of citizen co-operation as the incident given in the autobiography of Benjamin Franklin, early citizen of Philadelphia:

One day I found a poor industrious man, who was willing to undertake keeping the pavement clean, by sweeping it twice a week, carrying off the dirt from before all the neighbors' doors, for the sum of sixpence per month, to be paid by each house. I then wrote and printed a paper setting forth the advantages to the neighborhood that might be obtained by this small expense; . . . I sent one of these papers to each house, and in a day or two went around to see who would subscribe an agreement to pay these sixpences; it was unanimously signed, and for a time well executed. This raised a general desire to have all the streets paved, and made the people more willing to submit to a tax for that purpose.

General history also finds its use. The topics set forth below are given as a mere suggestion.

#### Under the topic Health:

Conceptions of disease as found among uncivilized peoples, the ancients, and in mediæval times.

Alchemy and the development of a knowledge of medicine.

Development of sanitation; sanitary conditions in mediæval cities.

Greek ideal of physical development, gymnasiums and other means of perfecting the body.

Important discoveries: Circulation of the blood, surgery and anesthetics, bacteria and germs, disinfectants.

#### Under the topic Education:

Of what the education of the youth consisted among savage, barbarous, and ancient peoples.

Among such peoples, were all the youth educated or only certain classes?

Show how, among the savage Australians, the barbarous American Indians, the ancient Spartans, education was adapted to existing needs of life.

What kinds of schools existed among such peoples, and who were the teachers?

The part taken by the church in education in the Middle Ages.

Founding of the great universities in Europe and America.

Growth of public education in Europe and the United States.

How the decay of the apprentice system has led to a need for industrial education in the public schools.

#### Under the topic Recreation:

Primitive customs dancing and music.

Public games in Greece and Rome.

Drama and the theater among the ancients.

Means of amusement in the Middle Ages.

Bards and troubadours.

Attitude of the Puritans toward recreation.

Comparison of forms of recreation in different countries.

Description and purposes of pageants.

#### Under the topics Transportation and Trade:

Early methods of trading and transportation; barter, market places, caravans, sailing vessel, etc.

The period of exploration and discovery.

Early trade routes and road building.

Periods of canal and railroad building.

Application of steam to land and water travel.

Discoveries and inventions relating to transportation and communication.

#### Under the topic Charities:

Provision made for widows, orphans, and the poor among the ancient Jews and Mohammedans.

Bread lines in Rome and their effects.

Treatment of beggars and diseased paupers in Eastern countries and in mediæval Europe and England.

Attitude of the church toward the poor.

Description of poorhouses by Dickens.

Condition of poorhouses in America 50 years ago.

5. *Summary*.—Community civics is a course of training in citizenship, organized with reference to the pupil's immediate needs, rich in its historical, sociological, economic, and political relations, and affording a logical and pedagogically sound avenue of approach to the later social studies.

### PART III.—SOCIAL STUDIES FOR YEARS X-XII.

#### (A) GENERAL ADMINISTRATIVE FEATURES.

1. *General outline*.—The committee recommends as appropriate to the last three years of the secondary school the following courses:

1. *European history to approximately the end of the seventeenth century*—1 year. This would include ancient and oriental civilization, English history to the end of the period mentioned, and the period of American exploration.

II. *European history (including English history) since approximately the end of the seventeenth century*—1 (or  $\frac{1}{2}$ ) year.

III. *American history since the seventeenth century*—1 (or  $\frac{1}{2}$ ) year.

IV. *Problems of American democracy*—1 (or  $\frac{1}{2}$ ) year.

These courses clearly repeat the cycle of social study provided for in years VII-IX. The principle of organization suggested in the pages following for all of these courses makes them extremely flexible and easily adaptable to the special needs of different groups of pupils, or of different high-school curriculums (commercial, scientific, technical, agricultural, etc.)

2. *Time allotment and minimum essentials*.—The course of social studies here outlined would constitute, if all were taken, from  $2\frac{1}{2}$  to 4 units, dependent upon whether one or one-half year is allotted to each of the last three courses. The committee believes that there should be a social study in each year of the pupil's course. It is, however, conscious of the difficulty presented by the present requirements of the high-school program. The question then arises as to what would constitute a minimum course of social study under these existing conditions. To this question the committee would reply:

(a) The minimum essentials of the year X-XII should be determined by the needs of the particular pupil or group of pupils in question.

(b) Other things being equal, it would seem desirable for the pupil, whose time in the last three years is limited, to take those social studies which would most directly aid him to understand the relations of his own social life. If, for example, he had but one year out of the three for social study, and there were no special reason for deciding otherwise, it is probable that he might better take a half year of American history and a half year of European history (courses II and III); or, a half year of American history and a half year of the twelfth-year study of social problems (courses III and IV). The choice among these might be influenced by the trend taken by his social study in the ninth year (see the alternative possibilities of the ninth-year work).

(c) If the principles advocated in the following pages of this report for the organization of instruction in the social studies be adhered to, the apparent incompleteness of the cycle of social study, due to the impracticability of taking all the courses offered, will be in some degree obviated. Briefly stated, this means that any course of history instruction should be so organized that the pupil will inevitably acquire some

familiarity with the economic, social, and civic factors in community life, just as in the study of civics or of social problems he should inevitably learn much history by using it.

### (B) HISTORY.

#### I. GENERAL STATEMENT OF PRINCIPLES OF ORGANIZATION.

1. *Reasons for the proposed organization of history courses.*—The committee recommends the organization of the history course in two or three units as indicated in the general outline on page 85 in view of the following considerations:

(1) In small high schools more than two units of history are impracticable; and in large high schools, where more could be offered, few pupils would (or do) take more than two units, and these often unrelated.

(2) The long historical period included in course I offers a wide range of materials from which to select, and makes possible the development of topics continuously and unhampered by chronological and geographical limitations.

(3) The assignment of an equal amount of time (or twice the time if a year is given to each of courses II and III) to the period since the seventeenth century as to the period prior to that time, expresses the committee's conviction that recent history is richer in suitable materials for secondary education than the more remote periods, and is worthy of more intensive study.

(4) The history of any two years that a pupil may elect under this plan will be related; that of courses II and III is contemporaneous and presents many points of contact, and that of either course II or III is continuous with that of course I.

(5) Under the present four-unit plan a premium is placed upon ancient and American history, all that goes between being left largely to chance. Under the plan proposed by the committee a much larger proportion of the pupils will secure the benefits of a study of the essentials of European history.

(6) It is important to remember that the cycle of history provided for in the years X-XII will have been once traversed, on narrower lines, in the years VII-IX. Consequently, the pupils who for any reason can not complete the cycle in the year X-XII will not be wholly deficient in the knowledge of any of its parts.

(7) Although many teachers are at present inadequately prepared to follow the method of instruction advocated by the committee, which requires the selection of materials on the basis of the pupils' own immediate interests and of current problems (see below), the compression of a longer historical period into a briefer course will bring pressure to bear to induce a more careful selection of facts and events for emphasis.

2. *Organization of subject matter within history courses.*—Within each course the committee recommends—

(1) The adoption to the fullest extent possible of a "topical" method, or a "problem" method, as opposed to a method based on chronological sequence alone.

(2) The selection of topics or problems for study with reference to (a) the pupil's own immediate interest; (b) general social significance.

Concrete suggestion as to what the committee means by these criteria is given in the following pages, especially in the three type lessons on pages 20-22.

The organization of history instruction on this basis unquestionably requires greater skill on the part of the teacher than the traditional method, less dependence upon a single textbook of the types now existent, and larger use of many books, or of encyclopedic books, for reference purposes. If the selection of materials is to be determined by immediate interests and current problems, it is manifestly impossible to furnish in advance a detailed and complete outline of topics for universal and invariable use. To attempt to do so would be contrary to the very spirit of the method. Whether Miss Harris, for example, should dwell at length upon the War of 1812 and the subjects of the rights of neutrals (see p. 20), could not be determined for her in advance by a committee, nor even by an international lawyer to whom the question might seem of profound importance. The matter was determined for her by the exigencies of the hour and the interests of her pupils. So, also, was the method by which she approached and unfolded the subject.

On the other hand, there are certain topics that approach universality and invariability in their application. It is hardly conceivable, for example, that Miss Dilks could have omitted a study of "Athens—the City Beautiful" (see p. 20). The love for the beautiful is universal. In varied forms it is common to the pupils in the class, and to all communities, nations, peoples and times. Athens represents a climax in the development of esthetics. But the feature that especially characterizes Miss Dilks's lesson is the method by which she brought "Athens—the City Beautiful" into the range of the pupil's own interest and experience and made it a direct means for the further cultivation of a fundamental interest in their lives.

In this there is suggested a possible organizing principle for history that is at once scientific and especially effective in teaching pupils who have had a course in community civics of the type described earlier in this report. This organizing principle is found in the "elements of welfare" or "fundamental interests," which afford an effective basis for the organization of the latter subject. It is a subjective rather than an objective basis. In the case just cited the pupils themselves have a more or less developed esthetic interest, which expresses itself in various elemental ways and reacts to conditions in the immediate community. This interest is common to all mankind and finds expression in a great variety of ways. It expressed itself in a remarkable manner

among the Greeks, who developed certain standards of beauty that have profoundly influenced the world since their time.

Already the principle of organization here suggested is being adopted more or less completely in the treatment of one great phase of history—that which relates to the “economic interest” and is expressed in economic or industrial history. Not all industrial history has been written on this basis of organization. Reference is made to the type of industrial history to which Prof. Robinson evidently refers in the statement quoted on page 22 of this report and which is clearly illustrated in the lesson described by Miss Hazard (p. 21). The same principle is applied in the course suggested by Dr. Leavitt and Miss Brown in their chapter on history in “Prevocational Education in the Public Schools.”<sup>2</sup>

But boys and girls, even in vocational and prevocational classes, have fundamental interests other than the economic. They are the interests or “elements of welfare” that serve as the organizing principle of community civics—physical, economic, intellectual, esthetic, religious, and social. Their relative prominence varies among nations as among individuals, partly because of temperament and partly because of physical and social influences; but the story of the life of any nation is the story of effort to provide for them. The life history of a nation, as of any community, consists of two great lines of endeavor which are, of course, closely interrelated: (1) The endeavor to establish permanent and definite relations with the land, which involves the geographical factor, and (2) the endeavor to establish effective means of co-operation to provide for the “elements of welfare,” which involves the evolution of a form of government. The committee merely raises the question as a basis for discussion and experiment whether the principle of organization here suggested may not do as much to vitalize instruction in history as it has already done to vitalize instruction in government under the name of community civics.

3. *Important aims in teaching history.*—(1) A primary aim of instruction in American history should be to develop a vivid conception of American nationality, a strong and intelligent patriotism, and a keen sense of the responsibility of every citizen for national efficiency. It is only on the basis of national solidarity, national efficiency (economic, social, political), and national patriotism that this or any nation can expect to perform its proper function in the family of nations.

(2) One of the conscious purposes of instruction in the history of nations other than our own should be the cultivation of a sympathetic understanding of such nations and their peoples, of an intelligent appreciation of their contributions to civilization, and of a just attitude toward them. So important has this seemed that a proposal has recently been made that

one year of the history course be supplanted by a course to be known as “A Study of Nations.”<sup>3</sup>

In suggesting such a study, Clarence D. Kingsley says:

The danger to be avoided above all others is the tendency to claim that one nation has a sweeping superiority over others. The claim of such superiority, as among individuals, is a sure cause of irreconcilable hatred. The cure for this narrow and partisan attitude is to be found in the broad conception that humanity is greater than any one nation. The idea should be developed that every nation has, or may have, something of worth to contribute to other nations, and to humanity as a whole. This conception when thoroughly inculcated would lead to a national respect for other nations, and to the belief that the continued existence and development of all nations are essential to the development of civilization. We can not expect that a principle so fundamental and comprehensive can be inculcated in the abstract; but through a specific study of many nations, the achievements and possibilities of each of which have been studied in the concrete, this idea may become established.

This conception of the supplementary value of the dissimilarities of the different nations and peoples, together with the ideal of human brotherhood, which is generally thought of in terms of essential similarity, should do much to establish genuine internationalism, free from sentiment, founded on fact, and actually operative in the affairs of nations.

This “Study of nations,” as Mr. Kingsley sees it, instead of focusing attention upon the past, would start frankly with the present of typical modern nations—European, South American, oriental—and would use history in explanation of these nations and of clearly defined problems of supreme social importance at the present time. Not only would the use of history organized in this way, according to Mr. Kingsley, “tend to reduce friction in international relations, as such friction often results from popular clamor, born of a lack of understanding of foreign nations,” but “it would help to a truer understanding and appreciation of the foreigners who come to our shores,” and “it would lead us to be more helpful in our relations with backward peoples, because it would help us to value them on the basis of their latent possibilities, rather than on the basis of their present small achievements.”

(3) In connection with the several history courses, and especially in connection with courses II and III, due attention should be given to Latin America and the Orient, especially Japan and China, and to great international problems of social, economic, and political importance to America and the world at large.

## II. DETAILED DISCUSSION OF PRINCIPLES UNDERLYING HISTORY INSTRUCTION.

1. *The position of history in the curriculum.*—History, which has long occupied the center of the stage among the social studies of the high school, is facing competition not only from other branches of study,

<sup>2</sup> Leavitt and Brown, *Prevocational Education in the Public Schools*, chap. viii. Houghton Mifflin Co.

<sup>3</sup> Kingsley, Clarence D., *The Study of Nations: Its Possibilities as a Social Study in High Schools*. School and Society, Vol. III, pp. 37-41, Jan. 8, 1916.



such as science, but also from other social studies. The customary four units, which have been largely fixed in character by the traditions of the historian and the requirements of the college, are more or less discredited as ill adapted to the requirements of secondary education.

In a recent address Miss Jessie C. Evans, of the William Penn High School for Girls, Philadelphia, said:

There is a growing danger that the traditional history course will only be permitted to the college-preparatory student. I visited, the other day, one of the largest high schools in the country and found that the majority of the students took no history at all. The new definitions of culture and the new demands for efficiency are causing very severe tests to be applied to any subject that would hold its own in our schools.

This statement suggests certain questions:

2. *To what extent and in what ways are college requirements and life requirements mutually exclusive?*—In this connection the words of Prof. Dewey quoted on page 4 are repeated with an interpolation:

If we could really believe that attending to the needs of present growth would keep the child and teacher alike busy and would also provide the best possible guarantee of the learning needed in the future [in college or elsewhere], transformation of educational ideals might soon be accomplished, and other desirable changes would largely take care of themselves.

The problem of articulation between elementary and secondary schools, on the one hand, and between secondary schools and colleges, on the other, would take care of itself if elementary school, secondary school, and college would each give proper attention to the needs of present growth.

3. *To what extent does an increase in the amount of history offered insure more universal or better social education?*—The historical training acquired by the pupils is not proportional to the number of courses offered. Whether pupils elect history or not depends, first, upon whether they want it; and, second, upon the demands of other subjects upon their time. Those who are concerned for the prestige of history in the school program will find that their gains by adding courses are largely "on paper." In small high schools more than two or three units of history are impracticable; and in large schools few pupils take more than two units of the subject, these frequently disconnected; the majority take only what is required. Two or three units of history are ample in these years, provided they are adapted to the needs of the pupil and have been preceded by the cycle which this report recommends for the years VII-IX (see p. 6).

4. *What "tests" must the history course meet if it is "to hold its own in our schools?"*—It is true that "the new definitions of culture and the new demands for efficiency are causing very severe tests to be applied" to all subjects, and the traditional type of history is in danger because it fails to meet the tests.

The ideal history for each of us would be those facts of past human experience to which we should have recourse oftenest in our endeavors to understand ourselves and our

fellows. No one account would meet the needs of all, but all would agree that much of what now passes for the elements of history meets the needs of none. No one questions the inalienable right of the *historian* to interest himself in any phase of the past that he chooses. It is only to be wished that a greater number of historians had greater skill in hitting upon those phases of the past which serve us best in understanding the most vital problems of the present.—(Prof. James Harvey Robinson, in *The New History*.)

The italics in this quotation are our own. It is the chief business of the maker of the course of study, the textbook writer, and the teacher to do what the historian has failed to do, viz, to "hit upon those phases of the past which serve us" (the high-school pupil) "best in understanding the most vital problems of the present." Further, "the most vital problems of the present" for the high-school pupil are the problems which he himself is facing now or which are of direct value to him in his present processes of growth.

Prof. Mace has made the following statement:

To connect events and conditions with life as the pupil knows it will make history more or less of a practical subject. The pupil will see where his knowledge turns up in the affairs of everyday life. He will really discover how present-day institutions came to be what they are. Whenever or wherever he strikes a point in history, in Egypt, Greece, Rome, England, or even America, the point must be connected with modern life. Otherwise it may have only a curious or perhaps an academic interest for him, or it may have no interest whatever.

This connection may be worked out in several ways. The Egyptians had certain ideas about immortality, and therefore certain customs of burial. The Greeks probably took these up and modified them. The Romans changed them still further, especially after the coming of Christ. The Roman Catholic Church made still greater changes. The Reformation introduced new conceptions of the soul after death, and to-day the great variety of ideas on the subject show the tremendous differentiations that have come since the days of old Egypt. Likewise, it shows how tenacious the idea has been—its continuity. How much interest is aroused if the student is put to working out this problem of the life development of an idea! What sort of history is this? It is neither ancient, medieval, or modern, but all these in one. It is the new kind of general history—the kind that socializes the student. It makes him feel that history has some meaning when he sees ancient ideas functioning in the present.

Not every idea in history lends itself to such treatment. Many facts have not preserved their continuity in as perfect a way, but seem to have lost it before modern life is reached. But there is another relation—that of similarity. The reforms of Solon in Greece and of the Gracchi in Rome, the causes of Wat Tyler's rebellion, the measures of Lloyd George in England to-day, and the social-justice idea of the Progressive platform in the Presidential campaign of 1912 bear striking resemblance to each other. While they can not be connected by progressive evolution, they are richly suggestive in the lessons they teach.

Again, many events whose continuity we may not be able to trace have valuable lessons growing out of their dissimilarity. By making note of their contrasts we may see their bearing on modern life. The terrible Thirty Years' War, the Puritan Revolution, the Revolution of 1688, the American Revolution, and finally the French Revolution, present such striking contrasts as to give the student some

notion of what might have been avoided for the betterment of the people. This means that when one of these upheavals is studied the rest should be made to yield their particular points of contrast, to the end that the student may see the lessons they present.

Another contribution to the discussion is the following, by Prof. Robinson. A portion of this is italicized for future reference.

One of our chief troubles in teaching history comes from the old idea that history is a record of past events; whereas our real purpose nowadays is to present past conditions, explain them so far as we can, and compare them with our own. . . .

While events can be dealt with chronologically, conditions have to be presented topically if they are to become clear. For example, we can select the salient events of the Crusades, and tell them in the form of a story; but the medieval church, castle, monastery, and farm have to be described in typical forms, as they lasted several centuries. The older textbooks told the events more or less dryly, gave the succession of kings, and the battles and treaties of their respective reigns. It was not deemed necessary to describe conditions and institutions with any care, and such terms as pope, king, bishop, church, baron, alchemy, astrology, witchcraft, were used as if every boy or girl of 14 knew exactly what they were.

*A still unsolved problem is to determine what conditions and institutions shall be given the preference, considering the capacity of the student on the one hand and the limitations of time on the other. The committee should not undertake to pronounce on this matter, but should urge that teachers and textbook writers should be constantly asking themselves whether what they are teaching seems to them worth while. . . .*

All instruction is, so to speak, the function of three variables—the pupils, the teacher, and the textbook. Every teacher is aware that pupils differ a good deal according to their environment, and, as we develop industrial and other forms of special education, it will be necessary to select our material to meet the special needs of the pupils. As for the teacher, no satisfactory results will be obtained until he learns to outrun the textbook and becomes really familiar, through judicious reading or university instruction, with the institutions which he proposes to deal with. Teachers should learn to deal with their subject topically, and should not be contented with reading historical manuals, which are usually poor places to go for information in regard to conditions and institutions. They should turn to the articles in the Encyclopedia Britannica and other similar works and to special treatments.

5. *Two questions at issue.*—There is general agreement that history, to be of value in the education of the boy or girl, must "function in the present." Disagreement arises over two questions: (1) What is meant by "functioning in the present?" (2) How shall the material of history be organized to this end?

(1) *What is meant by functioning in the present?*—There are two interpretations of this phrase: (a) The sociological interpretation, according to which it is enough if history be made to explain present conditions and institutions; (b) the pedagogical interpretation, according to which history, to be of value educationally, must be related to the present interests of the pupil. Many present-day problems are as far removed from the interests and experience of youth as if they belonged to the most remote historical epoch. It is not that a past event has its results, or

its counterpart, or its analogy, or its contrast, in the present, that gives it its chief educational value, but that it "meets the needs of present growth" in the pupil. We have learned to use hero stories and pioneer stories from any epoch of history in certain elementary grades because there is something in children that makes them want such stories as food for growth.

Recent periods are doubtless richer in materials of present application than the more remote periods. But children have very little chronological perspective. As one star seems as far away as another, although millions of miles may intervene between them, so American colonization may seem as remote to the child as the period of Athenian supremacy. The relative educational value of the wars of 1775, 1812, and 1861 does not depend upon their remoteness or proximity. It does not necessarily follow from the fact that trusts are a live, present issue, and Negro slavery came to an end 50 years ago, that the slavery agitation preceding the Civil War is of less educational value than the agitation regarding the control of trusts at the present time.

Do not these considerations suggest a basis for a partial answer at least to Prof. Robinson's "still unsolved problem," stated above, viz, "to determine what conditions and institutions shall be given the preference," and to his question, "What is worth while?" The principle may be stated thus: *The selection of a topic in history and the amount of attention given to it should depend, not merely upon its relative proximity in time, nor yet upon its relative present importance from the adult or from a sociological point of view, but also and chiefly upon the degree to which such topic can be related to the present life interests of the pupil, or can be used by him in his present processes of growth.*

The committee does not imagine, however, that by stating this principle it has solved the problem of the organization of the history course. It has only recognized a new and most important factor in the problem. By so doing, it has even made the problem more difficult, for there are now raised the new questions, What history does meet the needs of the child's growth? And how may a given topic be related to the child's interest? Acceptance of the principle throws the problem largely back upon the teacher, for the questions just stated are questions that she must answer for her particular group of pupils, and can not be disposed of once for all by a jury of historians or sociologists. The problem is only in part one of selection of topics; it is also one of method of approach. A topic that may be infused with vitality by a proper approach through the interests of the children may become perfectly barren of results through lack of such approach. (See discussion of the question of "Approach" in relation to the teaching of civics in this report.)

*Illustrations of the principle.*—The following type lessons illustrate, more or less perfectly, the application of this principle. The first is given by Miss Hannah M. Harris, of the State Normal School at

Hyannis, Mass., and illustrates both the selection of topic and the method of approach with reference to the pupils' immediate interest.

Ordinarily we have regarded the War of 1812 as not closely related to those interests (of the children) nor essential to the development of the central theme of the term, "The building of the Nation;" hence we have passed over the subject rather lightly, and have saved time for the more intensive study of the Revolution and the making of the Constitution, topics which are necessary to the central theme, and which can be made real to the children by means of their activities in a school club. This club makes and amends its own constitution, earns money, votes its expenditures; in short, manages its own affairs on democratic principles, and so brings home to its members the meaning of certain political terms and situations involved in these topics, such as taxation without representation, majority rule, compromises, etc.

In 1915, however, the subject of the War of 1812 appeared to us in a different light. The children were reading headlines in the newspapers in which the word "neutrality" had a conspicuous place. They heard the word repeated at home and on every street corner, and were beginning to use it themselves, though with but vague notions of its meaning. Consequently the preceding topic in the history course was less fully treated than in ordinary years, and time was appropriated for a study of the War of 1812.

The study was approached in the following way: What is meant by the expression "a neutral nation," "belligerent nation"? What nations are now belligerent? Which ones neutral? What are some of the ways in which the citizens of a neutral nation come into contact with the citizens or with the government of a belligerent nation? (Some of the answers: "Buy things of them"; "sell them goods"; "have our goods carried in their ships"; "travel in their countries.") So long as any nation remains neutral, what rights have its citizens in these matters and others? (So far answers all came from previous knowledge, casually acquired information.) Now, with some suggestions from the children and explanations from the teacher, the following outline was put upon the blackboard:

The main rights of neutrality:

1. To live peaceably at home; i. e., not to be forced to take sides in the war or to have life or property endangered by it.
2. To trade with any nation. Exceptions: Entrance to blockaded ports; dealing in contraband goods.
3. To travel peaceably on the high seas or anywhere permitted by existing treaties. Exceptions: Places in which belligerents are actually engaged in warfare.

The questioning was then resumed: Do neutral nations desire to keep up friendly relations with belligerents? What mistake on the part of a neutral nation may interfere with these friendly relations? (Showing more favor to one belligerent than to another.) Why does President Wilson ask us to be neutral (impartial, calm) in our talk and actions toward citizens of belligerent nations? What act on the part of a belligerent nation may interrupt these friendly relations? (The violation of any one of the rights of neutrality.)

The members of the class were referred to the textbook to find out how the United States tried in 1812 to maintain its neutrality and how it failed. The account in the textbook was found all too brief to satisfy the pupils' inquiries, and the study of the war was neither dry nor out of touch with reality.

Miss Clara G. Dilks, of Philadelphia, furnishes the following plan for a series of lessons on "Athens—the City Beautiful." Whatever we may eliminate from Greek history, it should not be Greek art, which has so profoundly influenced the world. But it is not merely that the influence of Greek art survives in modern architecture that gives this phase of Greek history its value; it is the additional fact that the æsthetic interest of children is strong and needs cultivation. We may assume that the following lessons had for a point of departure live interest on the part of the pupils in the beauty of their surroundings, perhaps specifically in a proposed city-planning movement or the erection of a new public building or, on the other hand, in the prevalence in the community of unsightly architecture.

Object of lesson:

1. To visualize Athens.
2. To stimulate the pupils to observe their own surroundings in comparison.
3. To give knowledge of the possibility of combining beauty and utility in building.

Method of assignment:

1. Give an outline that will fit the books available and the time of the pupils:
  - (a) Topography of the Acropolis. Caution: Avoid affording pupils opportunity of making a mere catalogue of names. Let them imagine themselves visitors to the city.
  - (b) Chief orders of Greek architecture.
  - (c) Chief buildings—plan, material, decorations.
2. Assign problems, such as—
  - (a) Examination of a principal street in the pupils' own community for—
    - (1) Kind of buildings.
    - (2) Uniformity in architectural scheme.
    - (3) Attempts to combine beauty with utility.
  - (b) Study of municipal buildings for—
    - (1) Grouping or isolation.
    - (2) Location with reference to business and residence sections.

Plan for teaching:

1. Question class as to characteristics of the Greeks that would influence their art. Compare characteristics of Americans and Greeks and draw conclusions.
2. Discuss orders of Greek architecture, compare them, and cite famous examples. Make use of pictures.
3. Application of orders to buildings.
4. Study of buildings. Use pictures.
  - Note relative locations.
  - Adaptation of form of buildings to geographical features.
  - Decoration.
  - Deduction as to whether architecture corresponds with the characteristics of the Greeks as noted.
5. Have pupils discover qualities in Greek architecture adaptable to all ages and countries.
6. Experience meeting regarding results of investigations by pupils in their own community and conclusions as to—
  - (a) Presence of Greek influence.
  - (b) Evidence of definite policy for beautifying pupils' own city. Compare with other American cities and European cities.

## 7. Conclusion of lesson:

Is it possible to adapt the idealistic Greek art to a modern commercial city? Consider modern bridges, street lamps, public buildings.

What is the best means of attaining this end?

Development of general knowledge of good models and an artistic sense.

Use of trained "city planners," art juries, etc.

Miss Blanche E. Hazard, of the department of home economics in the New York State Agricultural College, describes some work done by her when in the High School of Practical Arts, Boston. Her pupils were girls chiefly representing the "working classes." Neither they nor their parents looked with much favor upon an education that was not intensely "practical" from their point of view. Ancient and mediæval history made little appeal to them until—

The study of the mediæval craft guilds and of the development of crafts and commerce was taken up in connection with a close-at-hand examination of the present industries or occupations of their parents or other members of their families. Each father initiated his own daughter into the special mysteries of his craft; if a hod carrier, he sometimes had her await his freedom on Sunday, and then took her over the building where he was at work. The history of the craft, its problems, advantages and disadvantages, technique and conditions, in early times and in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, were studied.

Not only did the girls take the keenest interest in this work, but their fathers also became so interested to know that Greeks and Romans, Germans in the thirteenth century, and Englishmen for the past ten centuries had been tailors, shoemakers, masons, or greengrocers, and to learn of their wares, tools, and methods, that there was a happy interchange of facts of past and present between father and daughter.

Six weeks were allowed for the work in this special industry and an oral report was made to the class. In some years, from 200 girls there would come reports on 75 different industries and occupations. Meanwhile instruction was given regarding general typical industries, such as weaving, printing, lumbering, etc.

The students became keen observers and asked foremen and guides intelligent questions. They came to have decided ideas as to monotonous work and dangerous occupations. They had in hand the history of the industries before and after the introduction of machinery; with and without the protection of legislation. From the mediæval craft guild to the present trade union faith and tenets, became an interesting mental road of travel for them, and linked their far-off history work in their vocational school with their fathers' daily life and interests.

These three-type lessons illustrate the application to particular cases of the principle that history to function properly in the present must meet the needs of present growth in the pupils.

*(2) How shall the course in history be organized for the purposes of secondary education?*

Each new writer of a textbook is guided, consciously or unconsciously, in his choice of topics by earlier manuals which have established what teachers and the public at large are wont to expect under the caption "history."

Until recently the main thread selected was political. Almost everything was classified under kings' reigns, and the policy of their government, and the wars in which they became involved were the favorite subjects of discussion. . . . Political history is the easiest kind of history to write;

it lends itself to accurate chronological arrangement just because it deals mainly with events rather than with conditions. (Prof. Robinson, in *The New History*, chapter on "History for the Common Man," p. 136.)

The substitution of a sociological point of view for that of the mere analyst has led to the introduction of new threads of human progress and the subordination of wars and political policies. It has also led to a partial, but only partial, breaking down of the purely chronological basis of organization. But no substitute for the chronological organization of history has been found that adequately meets the conditions and needs of secondary education.

It is not meant to suggest that chronology can be disregarded. The gradual and orderly evolution, step by step, of institutions and conditions is of the very essence of history. It would be impossible, were it thought desirable, to eliminate this element from historical study. But the principle of organization is antiquated which results in what some one has called the "what-came-next" plan of treatment, a mere succession of events; in the building of United States history on the framework of "administrations," and of English or Roman history on that of "reigns;" and in the organization of the entire history course in such a way that the pupil studies "ancient" history this year, "mediæval" history next year, and "modern" history the year following—provided, indeed, that he happens to begin his history this year and continue it consecutively next year and the year following, which is by no means invariably true.

If, now, we accept the "pedagogical" interpretation of the principle that history must function in the present, namely, that history to be of educational value must relate to the present interests of the pupil, or meet the needs of present growth, in addition to explaining present-day conditions and institutions according to the sociological interpretation, what effect may this have upon the organization of the history course?

A statement by Miss Hannah M. Harris, of the State Normal School, at Hyannis, Mass., bears directly upon this question:

The moment we cut loose from the old method of trying to teach all the historical facts which may happen to be found between the covers of the textbook, the question of how to organize the material of history becomes an urgent one. The student of sociology desires to organize the subject matter primarily to exhibit some important phase or phases of the social evolution of the race or nation or of some smaller group. The student of children and their needs desires to start with their present interests and to select from the story of the past only such fragments as bear so close a relation to these interests that they are capable of being in some real sense understood by the children, and of proving incentives to further profitable interests and activities on their part. This second plan, if logically carried out, would leave the entire record of the past open as a field for selection at any stage of the child's education, and would thus impose upon the teacher a task immensely difficult if not impossible.

These two plans have a common purpose to make the study of history yield the help it should give in the social education of children and young people. Is it not possible to combine successfully certain features of both proposals?

Can we not heed the suggestions of modern pedagogy by starting with those contemporaneous matters in which the children have already some interest, and from this study of present-day community affairs be led naturally back into the past to find related material which is significant to the children because of this relationship, and valuable to them because it serves to make clearer or more interesting the present situation?

At the same time, can we not limit the field of history from which selection of material is to be made for any one year of school work to some one historical epoch, permitting the teacher free choice within these limits, the choice to be guided both by the present interests of the children and by the general rule that any historical facts considered must have some bearing upon the main lines of growth which are characteristic of the period being studied?

*Plan of the University of Missouri elementary school.*—One of the most radical experiments in the reorganization of history instruction to "meet the needs of present growth" is that of Prof. J. L. Meriam in the university elementary school of the University of Missouri. So far this experiment has been limited to the elementary school, but Dr. Meriam considers it a sufficient success to warrant its adaptation to the secondary school. He believes that "the present four units of history" in the secondary school are "quite out of date."

To quote from Dr. Meriam:

The university elementary school gives no instruction in history as such, although a great deal of historical material is very carefully studied. This policy is in accord with our policy in other subjects. We teach no arithmetic as such, but we do a great deal of arithmetical calculation in connection with special topics. We teach no geography as such, but we become acquainted with a great deal of geographical material in our study of various industrial and social activities. We teach no language as such, but language is in constant use in our efforts to express to the best of our ability the ideas we have in various other subjects.

History as usually taught is looked upon as a method of approach to the study of present-day problems. It is also used as a means of interpreting present-day problems. Thus history is usually studied before present-day problems. Further, history is usually studied by showing events in their chronological order. In the university elementary school no such purpose is present.

For us historical material is studied merely to satisfy interests and to further interests in present-day problems. Such study also provides at times inspiration and suggestion for the further study of problems that are of immediate interest. Such historical material frequently excites interest in reading and thus incidentally furnishes the pupil with certain information that may be of value later. This, however, must be looked upon a mere by-product.

Thus, with us the study of historical material follows, rather than precedes, the study of similar events in the present, and there is no occasion for taking up these events in chronological order. The immature pupil is not yet prepared to understand and appreciate development of institutions merely because he has not yet had sufficient experience with details. He is, however, interested in isolated events, here and there, especially those which are similar in character to events taking place in the present time that are of interest to him. Thus we need no textbook as a guide, but we use many textbooks as mere reference books. Thus we have no course in history to follow and no given amount of historical study to complete. Within the elementary school field the pupil is not ready to summarize and organize this historical study.

One special illustration may be sufficient. In our sixth grade the subject of transportation is considered in so far as it is a present-day problem. Some eight weeks are spent on such topics as railways, steamship lines, public highways and animal power, use of electricity in travel, the automobile, the aeroplane. In the seventh or eighth grade the same topic is considered, but in certain historical aspects. For example, the growth of railways in the United States and elsewhere. Here would be considered change in the extent of mileage, change in location of roads as affected by needs in various parts of the country, change in the character of engines and cars as influenced by inventions, improvement made in roads, bridges, railway stations, and the like.

Such study calls for: (1) much reading; (2) geographical study concerning the trunk lines and lines of travel; (3) arithmetical calculations, especially in the change of mileage and the cost of construction of roads and trains; (4) some very elementary physics in the study of the steam engine, air brakes, and the like; (5) drawing as a means of illustration; (6) composition, spelling, and writing as a means of expression; (7) "history for the common boy and girl." (See Robinson's "The New History," chapter on "History for the Common Man.")

"*History for the common man.*"—The chapter in Prof. Robinson's book to which Dr. Meriam alludes in the last clause constituted an address before a meeting of school superintendents at which the subject of discussion was industrial education. Prof. Robinson introduced his address as follows:

Should the student of the past be asked what he regarded as the most original and far-reaching discovery of modern times he might reply with some assurance that it is our growing realization of the fundamental importance, and absorbing interest of common men and common things. Our democracy, with all its hopes and aspirations, is based on an appreciation of common men; our science, with all its achievements and prospects, is based on the appreciation of common things. . . . We have come together with a view of adjusting our education to this great discovery.

It is our present business to see what can be done for that very large class of boys and girls who must take up the burden of life prematurely and who must look forward to earning their livelihood by the work of their hands. But education has not been wont, until recently, to reckon seriously with the common man, who must do common things. It has presupposed leisure and freedom from the pressing cares of life. . . .

It is high time that we set to work boldly and without any timid reservation to bring our education into the closest possible relation with the actual life and future duties of the great majority of those who fill our public schools. . . .

History is what we know of the past. We may question it as we question our memory of our own personal acts and experiences. But those things that we recall in our own past vary continually with our moods and preoccupations. We adjust our recollection to our needs and aspirations, and ask from it light on the particular problems that face us. History, too, is not fixed and immutable, but ever changing. Each age has a perfect right to select from the annals of mankind those facts that seem to have a particular bearing on the matters it has at heart. . . .

So, in considering the place to be assigned to history in industrial education, I have no intention . . . of advocating what has hitherto commonly passed for an outline of history. On the contrary, I suggest that we take up the whole problem afresh, freed for the moment from our impressions of "history," vulgarly so called.

What Prof. Robinson suggests is that, given a group of boys and girls whose economic and social position is preordained to the ranks of the great majority of men and women "who do common things," the history instruction should be organized, not on the traditional basis of chronology and politics, but on that of their own immediate interests.

This is what Miss Hazard did in the case cited above (see p. 21). This is also what Dr. Meriam is doing—only he goes further. He maintains that, whether or not we know in advance that the pupils are to be "common men and women," they are at least "common boys and girls" with interests in the present. He would therefore organize all history instruction on the basis of these interests, selecting from any part of the past those facts that "meet the needs of present growth;" and he would utilize these facts at the time when the pupil has need for them in connection with any subject under discussion or any activity in progress.

*Practical difficulties of radical reorganization.*—It may be plausibly objected that, while such radical reorganization as that suggested by Dr. Meriam may succeed in a special experimental school under the direction of a Dr. Meriam and a well-trained, sympathetic staff, it could not succeed at present under the conditions of the ordinary school. Miss Harris refers to the difficulty (see p. 21, above) and proposes to meet it by a compromise between the "chronological" and "pedagogical" methods, restricting the field from which the teacher shall draw her materials in any given year to a particular historical epoch.

The limitation of the ground to be covered makes it practicable for the average grammar-school teacher, who, of course, is not a specialist in history, to become very familiar with the possibilities of the history of the period in question, as a mine of valuable material. And it is only this familiarity on the teachers' part that will make this sort of teaching a success.

The difficulty to which Miss Harris here refers—unpreparedness in history on the part of the teacher—is perhaps not so much of a factor in the secondary school, especially in cities, as in the elementary school. Unpreparedness of the high-school teacher is likely to be of another kind, namely, unpreparedness in the art of teaching. The college-trained high-school teacher may be a specialist in his subject, but have no training whatever as a teacher.

This unpreparedness of teachers, the lack of suitable textbooks, natural conservatism, and the opposition of those whose chief apparent interest is to maintain the supremacy of a "subject," or who see in the traditional methods of history instruction a means of "culture" that the schools can not dispense with, cause school authorities and teachers to hesitate "to work boldly and without timid reservation," or to "take up the whole matter afresh, freed . . . from the impression of 'history' . . . so called," and to seek rather to modify the existing course of study, incorporating in it as much as possible of the new ideas in the hope that as they prove their worth they

will gain favor and open the way for further improvement. The committee has taken account of this fact in arriving at its conclusions, and has made its recommendations (pp. 15-17) in the hope that they will stimulate initiative and experiment rather than discourage effort at immediate improvement.

#### (C) PROBLEMS OF AMERICAN DEMOCRACY—ECONOMIC, SOCIAL, POLITICAL.

It is generally agreed that there should be a culminating course of social study in the last year of the high school, with the purpose of giving a more definite, comprehensive, and deeper knowledge of some of the vital problems of social life, and thus of securing a more intelligent and active citizenship. Like preceding courses, it should provide for the pupils' "needs of present growth," and should be founded upon what has preceded in the pupils' education, especially through the subjects of civics and history.

1. *Conflicting claims for the twelfth year.*—One fact stands out clearly in the present status of the twelfth-year problem, namely, the variety of opinion as to the nature of the work that should be offered in this year. Not to mention the claims of history, the principal claimants for position are political science (government, "advanced civics"), economics, and sociology in some more or less practical form.

A profitable course could be given in any one of these fields, provided only it be adapted to secondary-school purposes. Three alternatives seem to present themselves:

1. To agree upon some one of the three fields.
2. To suggest a type course in each of the three fields, leaving the choice optional with the local school.
3. To recommend a new course involving the principles and materials of all three fields, but adapted directly to the immediate needs of secondary education.

The traditional courses in civil government are almost as inadequate for the last as for the first year of the high school. Efforts to improve them have usually consisted of only slight modifications of the traditional course or of an attempted simplification of political science. The results have not met the needs of high-school pupils nor satisfied the demands of economists and sociologists.

A justifiable opinion prevails that the principles of economics are of such fundamental importance that they should find a more definite place in high-school instruction than is customary. Courses in economics are accordingly appearing in high-school curriculums with increasing frequency. To a somewhat less degree, and with even less unanimity as to nature of content, the claims of sociology are being pressed. A practical difficulty is presented by the resulting complexity of the course of study. The advocates of none of the social sciences are willing to yield wholly to the others, nor is it justifiable from the standpoint of the pupil's social education to limit his instruction to one field of social science to the exclusion of others. The most serious difficulty, however, is that none of the social sciences, as developed and organized by the



specialists, is adapted to the requirements of secondary education, and all attempts to adapt them to such requirements have been obstructed by tradition, as in the case of history.

Is it not time, in this field as in history, "to take up the whole problem afresh, freed . . . from the impressions of" the traditional social sciences?

2. *Relation to preceding courses.*—The suggestion that follows with reference to the last-year course of social study must be considered in the light of the recommendations for the preceding years. The courses in community civics and in history, if developed along the lines suggested in this report, are rich in their economic, sociological, and political connotations. Even if no provision be made in the last year for the further development of the special social sciences, the committee believes that its recommendations for the preceding years still provide as never before for the education of the pupil regarding the economic and social relations of his life.

3. *Concrete problems in varied aspects.*—The only feasible way the committee can see by which to satisfy in reasonable measure the demands of the several social sciences, while maintaining due regard for the requirements of secondary education, is to organize instruction, not on the basis of the formal social sciences, but on the basis of concrete problems of vital importance to society and of immediate interest to the pupil.

In other words, the suggestion is not to discard one social science in favor of another, nor attempt to crowd the several social sciences into this year in abridged forms; but to study actual problems, or issues, or conditions, as they occur in life, and in their several aspects, political, economic, and sociological. These problems or issues will naturally vary from year to year, and from class to class, but they should be selected on the ground (1) of their immediate interest to the class and (2) of their vital importance to society. The principle suggested here is the same as that applied to the organization of civics and history.

4. *Illustrations.*—In actual life, whether as high-school pupils or as adults, we face problems or conditions and not sciences. We use sciences, however, to interpret our problems and conditions. Furthermore, every problem or condition has many sides and may involve the use of various sciences. To illustrate the point we may take the cost of living, which is a vital problem from the standpoint of the individual and of society, and may readily have been forced upon the interest of the pupil through changes in mode of life, curtailment of allowance, sacrifice of customary pleasures, change in plans for education, etc. This problem involves, on the economic side, such fundamental matters as values, prices, wages, etc.; on the sociological side, such matters as standards of living, birth rate, etc.; on the political side, such matters as tariff legislation, control of trusts and the like, and the appropriate machinery of legislation, law enforcement, and judicial procedure.

The problem of immigration might impose itself

upon attention for any one of a number of reasons. It will have been touched upon in an elementary way in community civics, and doubtless will have come up in a variety of ways in connection with history; but it may now be considered more comprehensively, more intensively, and more exhaustively. One of the chief aims should now be to organize knowledge with reference to the economic, sociological, and political principles involved.

#### Economic relations of immigration:

Labor supply and other industrial problems (on the side of "production").

Standards of living, not only of the immigrants, but also of native Americans as affected by immigration (on the side of "consumption").

Relation to the problem of land tenure in the United States.

#### Sociological relations of immigration:

Movements and distribution of population; congestion in cities; etc.

Assimilation of immigrant population; admixture of races.

Vital statistics, health problems, etc.

Educational and religious problems involved.

Social contributions of immigrants; art, science, ethics.

#### Political and governmental relations of immigration:

Political contributions of immigrants; art, science, ethics. Herited political conceptions with those of the country of their adoption.

Naturalization; its methods, abuses, etc.

The courts in the light of the processes of naturalization.

Administration of immigration laws.

Defects and inconsistencies in the methods of our Government as shown in legislation regarding immigrants and in the administration of the laws.

Problems of municipal government arising from or complicated by immigration.

A study or series of studies of the type here suggested, developing from concrete issues, would afford opportunity to go as far as occasion demands and time allows into the fundamental economic and political questions of the time. In the field of political science, for example, problems can readily be formulated on the basis of particular cases involving a study of legislative methods of Congress and of State legislatures; the powers and limitations of Federal and State executives; judicial machinery and procedure; lack of uniformity in State legislation and its results; weakness of county government; comparison of administration of cities in Europe, South America, and the United States, etc.

There has not yet been the same insistent demand for sociology as a science in the high school that there has been for economics and the science of government. But there are many questions and principles of a more or less purely sociological character that are just as important for the consideration of a high-school boy or girl as many others of a more or less purely economic or political character. A course of the kind suggested by the committee should doubtless afford opportunity for some consideration of such vital social institutions as the family and the church.

These institutions will, it is hoped, have been studied in some of their aspects and relations in connection with history courses and in community civics, but they may now be considered from different angles, the point of departure being some particular problem in the foreground of current attention, such as, for example, the strength and weakness of the church as a socializing factor in rural life, etc.

Again, there are certain facts relating to the "social mind" for which the high-school boy and girl are quite ready, provided the study has a sufficiently concrete foundation and a sufficiently direct application. Any daily paper, indeed the life of any large school, will afford numerous incidents upon which to base a serious consideration, for example, of the impulsive action of "crowds" in contrast with the deliberative action of individuals and of the consequences of such action in social conduct. The power and effects of tradition are another phenomenon of social psychology fully as worthy of study in the high-school as many of the other social facts and laws that seem indispensable; it is not necessary to go farther than the curriculum which the pupil is following and the methods by which he is instructed to find a starting point for a discussion of this question and abundant material for its exemplification.

These two particular illustrations of expressions of the "social mind" are taken from a description of the social studies in the curriculum of Hampton Institute.<sup>4</sup> It may be said in passing that this committee has found no better illustration of the organization of economic and sociological knowledge on a problem basis, and of the selection of problems for study with direct reference to the pupils' immediate interests and needs than that offered in the work of this institution.

**5. Summary of reasons for the proposed course.**—In making its suggestion for this study of concrete problems of democracy in the last year of the high school the committee has been particularly influenced by the following considerations:

(1) It is impracticable to include in the high-school program a comprehensive course in each of the social sciences. And yet it is unjust to the pupil that his knowledge of social facts and laws should be limited to the field of any one of them, however important that one may be.

(2) The purposes of secondary education and not the intrinsic value of any particular body of knowledge should be the determining consideration. From the standpoint of the purposes of secondary education, it is far less important that the adolescent youth should acquire a comprehensive knowledge of any or all of the social sciences than it is that he should be given experience and practice in the observation of social phenomena as he encounters them; that he should be brought to understand that every social problem is many-sided and complex; and that he should acquire the habit of forming social judgments

only on the basis of dispassionate consideration of all the facts available. This, the committee believes, can best be accomplished by dealing with actual situations as they occur and by drafting into service the materials of all the social sciences as occasion demands for a thorough understanding of the situations in question.

(3) The principles upon which such a course is based are the same as those which have been successfully applied in community civics and, to some extent in isolated cases, to the teaching of economics, sociology, and even history.

**6. Experiment urged.**—The committee believes, however, that it should at this time go no further than to define principles, with such meager illustration as it has available, and to urge experiment. It would especially urge that the methods and results of experiment, either along the lines suggested in this report or in other directions, be recorded by those who make them and reported for the benefit of all who are interested.

A pageant of Missouri was given by students of the Kirksville State Normal School on May 20, 1916. The book of the pageant was prepared during the fall term by a class in history under the direction of Professor Violette, which gathered historical material for the book, and another class in English under Professor Wise, which composed the various episodes, preludes, interludes, postludes, upon the basis of the historical material furnished by the history class. The drilling of the cast, the rendering of the music, and the orchestration of the music were all done under the direction of members of the faculty of the Normal School.

The New York State Historical Association met at Cooperstown, October 3 and 4. Dr. Sherman Williams, the president of the association, delivered a very interesting address upon "The Present Position and Importance of the Teaching of State History." He pointed out that in the Regents' examinations in American history fewer questions were asked about the history of New York than were asked upon the history of Ireland in the English history examinations. He said that pupils learn more of the history of Massachusetts, of Pennsylvania and of Virginia than they do of the history of New York. He urged the preparation of a syllabus of state history outlining the history and provisions for examinations in the subject. He would have a list of books for reading prepared. In closing, Doctor Williams said, "We want our boys and girls so trained from the time they enter school to the day of their graduation, that they may think and act intelligently in regard to matters connected with our history. We should neglect no opportunity to see that the pupils in our schools are always taught our history thoroughly, beginning with the history of the locality in which they live, and from such small beginnings may grow ever-widening and deepening interest in the world's history."

<sup>4</sup> Jones, Thomas Jesse. "Social Studies in the Hampton Curriculum." Hampton Institute Press, 1908.



# Historical Geography in College Classes

The importance of appreciating the relation of history to geography is recognized by all instructors of history. In colleges, however, when the instructor discovers how lamentably ignorant his students are upon this aspect of history, he generally uses strong language against the high school teachers of history, and then proceeds to teach historical geography in the way he thinks it should have been taught in the high school. A far more rational way of approach is to ignore what has gone before, and handle historical geography in a manner adapted to the intellectual maturity of the college student.

This is now being done successfully in the course in Introductory European History in Columbia University. This course has passed through many changes since it was described in *THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE* six years ago (Vol. I, p. 220). The ancient and medieval portions have been omitted and it now begins with a survey of European society at the opening of the sixteenth century. The emphasis upon historical geography mentioned by Prof. J. T. Shotwell in his description in 1910, has, however, been greatly strengthened.

Prof. C. J. H. Hayes and Messrs. P. T. Moon and A. P. Evans have expressed their views on the place of map work in their "Syllabus of Modern History with Map Studies" (8rd edition, N. Y., 1916). "These studies should, therefore, aid the student in fixing in his mind a picture of the homes of the people with whom he expects to become familiar; from them he should come to recognize river and lake, mountain and valley, as well as political boundaries of states, the growth of nations, and their inter-relations. It is only when he has such a picture clearly fixed in his mind that the story of the people of these lands can be intelligently followed.

"Frequently the student looks upon the map study as sheer drudgery, wasting time which might be better employed. And if the map study is to degenerate, as it too frequently does, into the mere mechanical exercise of copying meaningless lines and colors from an atlas, such a viewpoint is in large measure justified. But that lies with the student himself. The attempt has here been made so to co-ordinate the map work with the assigned reading that its value may readily become apparent if the studies are done in connection with the reading, and are followed chronologically and understandingly. The student should see countries or movements grow. Any tendency merely to copy a map from an atlas is to be avoided. Every student will be held responsible for a thorough knowledge of the important facts and ideas of all map studies assigned and on final examination may be required to reproduce any map in its larger features" (p. 49).

With the permission of the authors of this syllabus several of their map studies are printed below.

EDITOR.

## MAP STUDY NUMBER FIVE.<sup>1</sup>

### THE ECCLESIASTICAL SITUATION IN EUROPE, 1500-1648.

Text: Hayes I, 112-169, ch. iv.; Hulme, Renaissance, Protestant Revolution, and Catholic Reformation.

Atlas: Shepherd, 116, 118; Muir, p. 10; Hayes I, 165 map; Hulme, 260 map. McKinley Outline Map No. 101a.

The present study is designed to show (A) the essential religious unity of western Europe in the year 1500; (B) the rending of that unity by the religious upheaval of the sixteenth century, and the deep inroads made by Protestantism during the first half of the century; and finally (C) the regaining of large sections of territory by a revitalized Catholicism. It must be continually borne in mind that the limits of religious faiths, unlike political boundaries, tend to shade into one another. They are intangible and ever shifting, but a study such as the present, even though necessarily only partial and inaccurate, should help the student to visualize clearly the essential facts in the ecclesiastical situation of the sixteenth century. For it is quite as important that one have these religious boundaries well in mind, as that one know the political divisions of Europe.

A. Divesting yourself in so far as possible of present-day preconceptions, read carefully Hayes I, 112-113, 122-123, and then draw lines showing the approximate boundaries in Europe of Roman Catholicism, Greek Catholicism (Orthodoxy), and Mohammedanism in the year 1500. (Hayes I, 165 map, or Shepherd, 116.) Were there any appreciable bodies of heretics to be found in Europe at this time? If so, indicate by light cross-hatching in brown.

It must be remembered that large territories in Europe were controlled directly by the Church and administered by the clergy. This fact gave the clergy great political as well as religious importance, and led during and after the Protestant Revolt to serious complications. Such lands were the *Papal States* in Italy and the lands in the Empire controlled by the great prince-bishops. Refer now to Map Study Number One, and also to Hulme, 260 map, and see that you remember the Church lands there mentioned. Compare these maps with Shepherd, 116, and note in your key which of these lands were swept over into Protestantism. It should be remembered that these were not the only lands lost by the Church, but that countless smaller holdings were confiscated, not only in the states which outright became Protestant, but even in some of the countries which remained Catholic (Hayes I, 126).

B. The Protestant Revolt split Europe into two camps, between which the dividing line tended ever to become more sharply defined. In general, what parts of Europe broke away from the headship of the Pope? Draw a line showing the approximate extent of the Revolt in the year 1550. (Shepherd, 116.) On your key-sheet name the states and the more important divisions of the Empire that had become Protestant by this time, indicating whether Lutheran, Anglican, Calvinistic, or Zwinglian. These countries should

<sup>1</sup> The text used is C. J. H. Hayes' "A Political and Social History of Modern Europe;" the atlases are W. R. Shepherd, "Historical Atlas," R. Muir, "Hammond's New Historical Atlas for Students" (second edition), and C. G. Robertson and J. G. Bartholomew, "An Historical Atlas of Modern Europe from 1789 to 1914."

now be colored, using pink for Lutheran, red for Anglican, yellow for Calvinistic (and Zwinglian). If traces of Catholicism remain, indicate the fact by oblique lines in blue. In the Germanies, where much of the land was still debatable, indicate by solid color (pink) those lands which had gone over to Protestantism and outline in pink those lands, such as Bavaria and Austria, in which the new movement had won a considerable popular following. Would you say that at this time the Germanies gave indication of going over entirely to Lutheranism? (Read Hulme, 264-265.)

In France, Protestantism never won any solid districts. In the south and west, however, Calvinism gained numerous adherents. Indicate these by oblique lines in yellow (Shepherd, 116). The three most important towns which were confirmed to the Protestants (Huguenots) by the Edict of Nantes (1598) were La Rochelle, Nîmes, and Montauban. Locate these towns.

We should now be in a position to recognize the rapidity of the spread of the Protestant movement. Within a generation nearly the whole of northern Europe had broken with the Roman Catholic Church, and Protestantism had made serious inroads upon central and southern Europe. Can you give any reason for the fact that the new faith gained its staunchest adherents in the north? Consider this question, but do not attempt to answer it in your key.

C. That the Revolt spread no further was due in large part to the Catholic Reformation which is the central fact in the religious life of Europe during the latter half of the sixteenth and the early part of the seventeenth century. It must be remembered that this was not merely a defensive movement, but an aggressive attempt to win back the lands which had been lost to the Catholic Church. The short-lived restoration of Roman Catholicism in England during the reign of Mary Tudor illustrates the aggressive character of the movement. Unsuccessful in England, the Catholic Church was none the less victorious in lands of central and southern Europe. Recall the terms of the Religious Peace of Augsburg (1555). That princes were thereby given free reign in deciding the religion (Lutheranism or Catholicism) of their subjects—a contention which the Protestant princes had long upheld—would now aid Catholic princes as well. It would also tend to make the fluctuating line of division between Catholicism and Protestantism more clear-cut. Notice the important gains made by Catholicism in the southern Germanies. Compare the maps in Shepherd, 116 and 118. Where and against what Protestant sect did Catholicism make its most notable gains? (See Muir, page 10.) Fill in now with solid blue the lands, such as Italy and Spain, which had preserved their allegiance to the Catholic Church, and the lands which were won back to the Church during this period (1555-1600), enumerating the latter in your key.

Did any Protestant sect make gains, also, during this period? (Shepherd, 118.) Indicate such gains on your key-sheet and on the map where possible. This should make clear why the recognition of Calvinism became such a burning question during the later sixteenth and early seventeenth centuries.

Compare, finally, the extent of lands held by Protestantism in 1550 and about the year 1600, making mental note of any important changes. The line between Catholic and Protestant countries, as it appeared about the year 1600, and as it was more definitely established at the end of the Thirty Years' War (1648), has to the present day remained substantially the same.

## MAP STUDY NUMBER SIX.

### THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR AND THE PEACE OF WESTPHALIA.

Text: Hayes I, 218-232; Wakeman, *European History*, 1598-1715.

Atlas: Shepherd, 114-115, 118-119, 121-123; Muir, pp. 11-12 and plate 9; Hayes I, 229 map; Map for Map Study Number Five.

McKinley Outline Map No. 125a.

A study of the territorial changes which took place at the close of the Thirty Years' War is illuminating from several points of view. It makes evident one at least of the leading motives for the intervention of neighboring powers in German affairs; it marks the beginning of aggressions on the part of two of these powers, France and Sweden, at the expense of German states; it points also to the rise of the House of Hohenzollern to a position of power in the Germanies, and portrays most impressively the hopeless confusion, weakness, and disunion of the numberless states, small and large, comprising the Holy Roman Empire. (See Muir, pp. 11-12.)

A. After reading Hayes I, 219-229, draw a line on the ecclesiastical map you prepared for Map Study Number Five, separating those countries of Europe and divisions of the Empire which adhered to the Catholic and Imperial party from those which fought for the "Protestant" cause. Name on your key-sheet and indicate (on McKinley Outline Map No. 125a) by bi-colored cross-hatching at least one of the states within the Empire which pursued a double policy, aiding first one side and then the other. (Consult Shepherd, 118-119, 122-123; Muir, plate 9; Hayes I, 229.) Comparing the line of the Thirty Years' War with the line of ecclesiastical division (Map Study Number Five), would you infer that religious conviction formed the only or even necessarily the chief motive in this war? Does the political condition of the Germanies invite foreign intervention? Outline the Holy Roman Empire before the war (Shepherd, 114-115.) Note the patch-work effect of the myriad states shown by the map just referred to. And no map can possibly convey an exaggerated or even an adequate idea of the complexity and disunion of the Holy Roman Empire.

B. (1) Foreign aggrandizement. One motive which actuated the belligerents in the Thirty Years' War will be patent upon a survey of the territorial gains confirmed to foreign powers by the Peace of Westphalia. Indicate by oblique lines the territory which the king of Denmark hoped to gain for a younger son (Wakeman, 68; Hayes I, 223). Show next in solid color the territories actually secured by France either as new acquisitions or as confirmations of earlier conquests. (See, especially, Shepherd, 121 inset.) Map Study Number Seven will show how these gains were the fruit of a consistent policy of the French government, namely, to round out French territory to its "natural frontiers."

Show by horizontal shading what territorial gains were made by Sweden. Note that she was now placed in control of the mouths of three of the most important German rivers—the Weser, the Elbe, and the Oder. The significance of this becomes manifest when one recalls that railways were then unknown, and the rough highways were too frequently rendered either impassable by rains or unsafe by "gentlemen of the road." The rivers, therefore, served as the great arteries of trade and communication, and the Power controlling them secured an immense advantage. The Germanies were now largely at the mercy of Sweden in respect of their foreign communications and commerce. Sweden, like France, was pursuing a consistent policy—the policy of making the Baltic a Swedish lake.

B. (2) Internal changes. No less self-seeking than the foreign Powers were the several states of the Empire. Each sought its own advantage from the weakness and disruption of the central government. Indicate the gains made by Bavaria as reimbursement for service rendered by Duke Maximilian to the Emperor. At whose expense were these gains made? What did Saxony win from the war and at whose expense? (Key.) The state which gained most, however, was Brandenburg, thanks to the efforts of its able, wily, and unscrupulous ruler, Frederick William, the Great Elector. He claimed the whole of Pomerania, but received compensation for the portion taken by Sweden in the rich lands of Magdeburg, Halberstadt, and Minden. Having indicated in solid colors all lands secured by Brandenburg, Saxony, and Bavaria, outline each of these states in the same color as its new acquisitions, in order to make sure that you have clearly in mind the relative position of each ceded territory with reference to the state by which it was acquired. (Shepherd, 121 inset, shows the territorial changes most clearly; the terms of the treaty are well summarized by Wakeman, *European History, 1598-1715*, pp. 123-124.)

C. Significance of the treaty. More significant than the actual territorial changes was the reaction of the Peace of Westphalia upon the Empire and upon Europe as a whole. It "is the beginning of a new era. It marks the formation of the modern European states system. In Germany itself, the central fact registered by the peace is the final disintegration of the Empire. The German people were governed by the German princes, who had all the rights of sovereignty . . . the central authority was reduced to a minimum." Foreign states (enumerate them in your key) now had votes in the Diet by virtue of their newly-acquired German possessions. Large territories now broke away from the Empire and were declared independent (indicate them on your map and in your key). The Emperor became less German in his policy and more Austrian. (The student would do well to read the summary in Wakeman, pp. 122-128.)

#### MAP STUDY NUMBER EIGHT.

##### THE COLONIAL CONFLICTS OF FRANCE AND ENGLAND, 1688-1763.

Text: Hayes I, 299-319.

Atlas: Hayes I, 301, 317; Shepherd, 128, 132, 133, 136-137, 189-194; Muir, pp. 52-53; plates 48-50, 53-55.

McKinley Outline Map No. 104a, No. 148a, and Map Study Number Three.

While in the European wars from 1688 to 1763, the French Bourbons were dearly purchasing a few square miles of territory to round out the frontiers and establish the military prestige of France in Europe, they underestimated the importance of sea-power, colonies, and commerce. It is the purpose of this Map Study to exhibit and explain the downfall of France as a colonial power and the triumph of Great Britain in the century-long conflict for world-dominion.

A. In order to make clear the position of the rivals on the eve of the "world-conflict," refer back to Map Study Number Three, and on that map of the colonial explorations (or in the key) show the chief colonial possessions gained or lost by England, France, Spain, Portugal, and the Netherlands between 1600 and 1688 (comparing Shepherd, 107-110 and 128; see Hayes I, 58-59, 299-304). Which of these five Powers, in your estimation, controlled the greatest colonial area; the most valuable mining regions; the most important spice-producing areas? For what products were the French and English colonies (a) on the North American continent, and (b) in the West Indies, chiefly prized? What was to be the position of Spain (Hayes I, 307, 308, 311,

315) and of the Netherlands (Hayes I, 307-308) in the forthcoming struggle between France and England?

B. The Colonial Wars in America. On Map No. 104a, fill in with solid color the areas effectively settled by the English and by the French before 1688 (Hayes I, 300-302 and map p. 301; Shepherd, 128, 189-193; Muir, plates, 48, 53, 54). Indicate in lighter tints of the same colors or by cross-hatching the extent of the English and French settlements about 1750. What were the geographic and economic reasons for the wide diffusion of French settlement and for the compactness of English colonization? What prevented the English from spreading westward around the southern end of the Appalachian barrier? Outline the extreme territorial claims—regardless of effective occupation or justification—of the French and of the English about the year 1688 (Shepherd, 190-191; Hayes I, 300). Following the narrative in Hayes I, 306-312, for each of the colonial wars in America between 1689 and 1750, indicate the principal places conquered by the belligerents and the territories ceded by treaty. In preparation for the great French and Indian War, indicate the following French forts and posts, taking mental note of the date and the strategic importance of each: Louisburg, Frédéric, Oswego, Niagara, Presqu' Isle, Le Boeuf, Venango, Duquesne, Detroit, Sault Ste. Marie, New Orleans (Shepherd, 191; Hayes I, 309). Place circles around the French strongholds captured by the British, 1758-1760 (Hayes I, 314). On your key-sheet note the territorial changes in America registered by the peace of 1763, and the American possessions retained by France (Hayes I, 317-319). Referring to Shepherd, 176, note in your key the regions of the New World where French is still the language of the people.

C. Anglo-French Rivalry in India. To gain some idea of the size of India, compare the distance between Calcutta and Bombay with that between London and Liverpool; between Paris and Vienna; between New York and San Francisco. Remembering that the densely populated empire of India was valuable not for colonization but for trade and possibly for tribute, indicate on McKinley Outline Map No. 148a the English and French trading posts established in the seventeenth century, with dates (Hayes I, 303-304; Shepherd, 128, 132, 137). Observe especially the localities where French and English ambitions might clash. In the eighteenth century, when the power of the Mogul Emperor at Delhi had fallen into decay, and his vassals and viceroys, such as the nizam of the Deccan (capital at Hyderabad) and the nawab of Bengal (capital at Murshidabad) had become virtually independent princes, the masterful French governor-general Dupleix entered into the political intrigues of the native Indian rulers, hoping thereby to increase French power and prestige. "When Dupleix was appointed governor of Pondicherry, the French were already practically masters of the south Coromandel Coast, and their influence extended far into the Carnatic. He quickly put the older settlement in order, and returned to Chandernagore, to be installed there as nawab of that place. Returning to Pondicherry, he used his new title as a means of overawing the neighboring chieftains; his magnificence dazzled them, and he was soon recognized as sovereign of the South." (Tilby, *British India*, p. 51.) Puppets of Dupleix were established as nizam at Hyderabad and nawab at Arcot. In addition, the Northern Circars were brought directly under French control. Shade with oblique lines the territory held by the French, and outline the wider regions in which French influence predominated, in the time of Dupleix (Shepherd, 137). To Robert Clive, whom the natives called Sabut Jung

("Daring in War") must be ascribed the credit of wrecking the grandiose schemes of Dupleix. Follow Clive's exploits on the map; his bold seizure and gallant defense of Arcot (1751), which established British prestige in the Carnatic; his recapture of Calcutta (1757); his conquest of Chandernagore (1757); his amazing victory at Plassey (1757), which enabled him to set up a British protégé as nawab of Bengal. Follow also the subsequent British victories at Masulipatam (1758), Wandewash (1760), and Pondicherry (1761). Although by the treaty of Paris (1763), France retained five unfortified posts in India as relics to remind her of Dupleix's dream of empire, the political power of France in India was destroyed; Dupleix had returned home disconsolate in 1754; and the French East India Company was shortly afterwards dissolved (1769). The British, however, still had the native princes to deal with. Shade by oblique lines the territories directly under British control at the close of Clive's administration (Shepherd, 137). One of Clive's last acts was to acquire from the Mogul the right to collect the revenues and maintain the armies of Bengal, Behar, Orissa, and the Northern Circars; hence, these provinces should be outlined as belonging to the British sphere of influence.

#### MAP STUDY NUMBER TWELVE.

##### THE GROWTH OF RUSSIA, 1500-1795.

Text: Hayes I, 366-388; Rambaud, *The Expansion of Russia*.

Atlas: Shepherd, 2-3, 120, 124, 130, 138-139, 170-171; Muir, plates, 1, 26, 27, 59, 60, 63; Hayes I, 369 map; Hayes II, 467 map.

McKinley Outline Maps Nos. 101a and 102b.

The story of Russia, like that of her western neighbor, Prussia, has been one of continual expansion. There are two phases of this expansion; (A) the gradual extension of her frontiers eastward over the great plains of Northern Asia, much such a movement as the westward expansion in our own country; and (B) the pushing of her boundaries south and west at the expense of civilized states, each of which, during some period of our study, played a considerable role in the history of Europe.

A. Eastward Expansion. First notice briefly the acquisition of northern Asia. Glance again at a physical map (Shepherd, 2-3, 170-171; Muir, plates 1, 59, 60) and observe how lack of natural barriers would invite expansion eastward. Read Hayes I, 367, and, referring to your atlas (Shepherd, 170-171; Muir, plate 63; Hayes II, 467), follow the line of eastward expansion, locating (on McKinley Map No. 102b) with dates of foundation the cities mentioned in the text. Draw as accurately as you can the boundaries of Russia in Asia as they were in the year 1795 and color lightly the lands east of the Urals which then formed a part of the Russian Empire. This will serve to show that Russia is naturally as much an Asiatic as a European power.

B. European Expansion. In the west, Russia had to settle with Sweden the question of the control of the Eastern Baltic; with the Turks, the question of the control of the Black Sea; and with Poland, the question of the hegemony of Slavic Europe. We have already seen these three states in clash with Austria and Prussia (Map Studies Ten and Eleven); their most implacable foe was, however, this great Oriental Slavic Empire, founded by the prince of Moscow and forced into the councils of Western Europe by Peter the Great. (If you study the two maps in Muir, plate 26, reading also the explanation of those maps on pp. 30-32 of Muir, the above statement will appear more striking.)

Read now your text (Hayes I, 368-369) and then indicate on your map (No. 101a) the successive acquisitions made by Russia in Europe from the time of Ivan III to the ac-

cession of Peter the Great. (From Map Study Number One you can get the extent of Russian territory at the death of Ivan III.) Most important acquisitions were made by Ivan IV in the valleys of the Volga and the Don, and by Alexis against the Poles on the Dnieper. Consult for this purpose Shepherd, 138-139; Muir, plate 27. The former is difficult to read; the latter has but little detail. Rambaud's *Expansion of Russia*, pp. 16-18, may help to explain these maps for the interested student.

It remained for Peter the Great (1689-1725) to push purposefully the expansion of Russia to the West and South. Outline the boundaries between Russia and the possessions of her neighbors—Sweden, Poland, and the Ottoman Empire—at the accession of Peter the Great. (Shepherd 120, 124, 130, 138-139; Muir, plate 26a; Hayes I, 369 map.) Then after reading Hayes I, 369-379, show the territorial acquisitions made by Peter. Consult Shepherd and Muir as above, and also map in Hayes I, 369. State clearly in your key from whom and by what treaty each acquisition was made. Locate Poltava.

The work of Peter the Great was carried on by his successors. Trace the gains made during the eighteenth century, noting especially those of Catherine the Great, at the expense of the Turks and the Poles. Read Hayes I, 379-388. Consult atlases as above. In tracing the partitions of Poland, note, but do not indicate, the acquisitions of Prussia and Austria.

Now glance again at the map in Muir, plate 26. Russia has secured her "windows." The middle kingdoms have been greatly weakened; one has disappeared entirely. But Russia has still to secure a satisfactory outlet to the south, nor is her westward expansion stopped. (Compare Map Study Number Seventeen.)

#### MAP STUDY NUMBER TWENTY.

##### UNIFICATION OF ITALY, 1848-1871.

Text: Hayes II, 163-175.

Atlas: Shepherd, 161; Muir, plate 18b; Robertson, plates 16-18; Hayes II, 165 map, 427 map.

McKinley Outline Map No. 132a.

Recall the reorganization of the Italian peninsula as accomplished by Napoleon (Map Study Number Sixteen), and the virtual undoing of his work by the Congress of Vienna (Map Study Number Seventeen). Observe in this connection, however, that although the house of Habsburg has tightened its grip more firmly than ever upon the peninsula, the kingdom of Sardinia has emerged with increased territory acquired at the expense of Genoa. Recall also the unsuccessful attempt of Sardinia to drive Austria from Italian soil in 1848 (Map Study Number Nineteen). A later attempt will prove more successful.

As you read your text (Hayes II, 163-175) try to make your work visual by constant reference to the atlas (Shepherd, 161; Muir, plate 18b; Hayes II, 165 map). Draw on your outline map the kingdom of Sardinia as it was in 1848. Locate Plombières and indicate the territories which Cavour promised as the price of French aid against Austria. Now trace on your map the steps in the unification of Italy, indicating in your key when and how each state was annexed to Sardinia (1850-60). Then show what the newly constituted kingdom of Italy secured from her alliance with Prussia in 1866, and from the Franco-German war of 1870-71. Had Italy now reached her national boundaries? Show the lands in which the Italian population predominates, but which still remained in the possession of the Habsburgs (Hayes II, 427 map). This will help to explain Italy's entrance into the War of the Nations (1915).

## An Occasional Museum

BY M. M. FISHBACK, HIGH SCHOOL, ORANGE, CAL.

A number of recent articles in the *HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE* have emphasized the value of the historical museum as an aid in school work. To-day, many universities and colleges as well as normal schools have well equipped and discriminately selected museums. Therefore, it is not necessary to discuss the general value of the history museum as a means of stimulating interest in the past and making it real to present-day students.

The great majority of high schools will never be able to emulate the colleges in developing the museum. Some of the larger secondary schools with their thousands of students may succeed in getting together a creditable collection, but the building up of a museum of any real proportions will scarcely be possible to the average high school. But, it is not impossible to make use of the *museum idea* in the smallest of high schools. History teachers in these schools and in those somewhat larger may be interested in a plan that we worked out last year. Ours is a union high school serving a community of about ten or twelve thousand people—a rather typical situation.

The difficulties in arranging for a permanent museum suggested the possibility of having a temporary one. The individual who cherishes a relic of value hesitates to give it away, or even to part with it for any indefinite period. However, he usually is very glad to loan it for a day or two if good care is guaranteed. On these terms we secured many articles that we could not have obtained otherwise.

Our American history classes were in the midst of the Civil War period when Lincoln's birthday approached. This suggested to us the idea of getting together all the material of that time that we could and arranging it in a "Lincoln Day Museum." An appeal was made not only to the history classes but to the school at large. A great deal of enthusiasm was developed as the discovery of one souvenir after another was announced. Soon the whole community was enlisted in the movement and it was gratifying the number of things of real value that were found. The fact that we are in a western state far remote from what might be called the Civil War section made these discoveries all the more remarkable. The day before the exhibit the material was brought to the high school and responsible students received and tagged the different articles. These were arranged on tables placed in one of the larger rooms. During the morning the history classes were taken to this room and a study of the various exhibits was made. In the afternoon, the school as a whole, as well as the people of the community, including the old soldiers, the Relief Corps, and the Daughters of Veterans, had an opportunity of seeing the museum. The results, we believe, were very much worth while. Perhaps not the least of these was the bringing together of the history department and the patrons of the school upon a common ground of interest.

There was a most varied assortment of articles in the museum. Many reflected the home life of '61 while others were of the war and the field of battle. The boys gloried in the guns, the sabers, the bayonets, the swords, pieces of shell, revolvers, and canteens; the girls found much to interest them in the soldier's housewife, the old Seth Thomas clock, a beautifully worked bed-spread, an old fashioned snuff-box, samplers and an old time scrap-book. All were eager to examine the confederate money, the shinplasters, the old stamps and the war time envelopes. A genuine copy of the "Vicksburg Citizen" printed on wall paper was presented to the school by the G. A. R. post as was also a copy of the New York Herald containing the account of the assassination of Lincoln. A number of pictures and books, several documents signed by the great President and a valuable collection of Civil War cartoons made up another section of the exhibit. Two diaries of the period were brought in by one of the students. In looking through these we came across this entry: "Nov. 8, 1864. To-day I voted for Abraham Lincoln; to-night I went to a dance and met Molly Adams." Without doubt, our most ambitious relic was a silver water set belonging to one of our teachers whose father was one of the principals of the famous Brownlow-Pryne debate in 1859 in Philadelphia—"Ought American Slavery to be Perpetuated?" The set was presented to Mr. Pryne by the free Negroes of Philadelphia and bears this inscription:

"Presented Feb. 21, 1859 to the Rev. A. Pryne of McGrawville, New York, by his friends (proscribed Americans) of Philadelphia as a testimonial of their approbation for his able and triumphant defense of human freedom in the late debate with Parson Brownlow of Tennessee."

This plan has several distinct merits besides making use of the museum idea where it is not possible to have a permanent museum. With the temporary or occasional museum it is much easier to emphasize the period studied than it is with a permanent one which is always accessible to the students. The occasional museum comes to them with a certain freshness and interest that does not always obtain with the permanent museum. Showing the relics of one period only serves to specialize the work in a way that concentrates the attention of the high school boy and girl. We found that our students enthusiastically entered into the work of collecting the material of the Civil War period. This year we hope to have a Colonial Museum on Washington's birthday. Undoubtedly, one of the most commendable features of the plan is that the work was the result of the efforts of the students themselves. Modest as was our museum, there was some opportunity of teaching the students a little in the way of interpreting values so that they would not be entirely at sea in a real museum. Altogether, the occasional museum presents many opportunities to stimulate interest in historical work and to make it attractive to the secondary student, besides bringing the history department in a concrete way before the community at large.

## Reports from The Historical Field

The Texas History Teachers' Bulletin for November, 1916 (Vol. 5, No. 1), contains a brief statement of the "Problem Method of Teaching History," by A. W. Birdwell. Superintendent J. T. Davis, of Navasota, describes "The Methods of Teaching Civics in the Schools of Navasota." Prof. Eugene C. Barker, of the University of Texas, continues his interesting and valuable source readings in Texas history, showing in this issue the friction which developed between the Colonists and the Mexican soldiers. The source extracts are accompanied by a series of suggestive questions and problems.

The November number of "Daughters of the American Revolution Magazine" contains an interesting illustrated article upon the surrender of Burgoyne, giving photographs of important sites in connection with Burgoyne's campaign.

A conference upon the Education of Immigrants was held at Buffalo, N. Y., on Tuesday and Wednesday, November 28 and 29, under the chairmanship of Frederic E. Farrington, Director of Immigrant Education, United States Bureau of Education. Among the topics discussed were "The Relations of Chambers of Commerce to Immigrant Education," "The Relation of Women's Organizations to Such Education," "The Training of Teachers for the Instruction of Immigrants," "The Importance of Giving Civic Education to the Immigrant," and "A Discussion of Domestic Immigration Program for the City, the State and the Nation."

Arthur B. Archer, of the Holt Secondary School, Liverpool, England, has for some time been experimenting with a new course in the history of discovery. The course was given to students of the same grade as American high school students. It was spread over two years with one lesson every two weeks, and was made supplementary to the work in history and geography. As a result of this experiment, Mr. Archer has issued in book form "Stories of Exploration and Discovery" (New York, G. P. Putnam's Sons, 65 cents), in which he gives a simple narrative of the explorations from the time of the Vikings and Marco Polo to Sir John Franklin and the attainment of the North and South Poles. The work has a number of maps, illustrations, and a brief bibliography for further reading.

Prof. Milledge L. Bonham, Jr., contributes to the Bulletin of Louisiana State University (Vol. 7, No. 8, August, 1916) a paper entitled, "Recent History: To What Extent to the Exclusion of Other History?"

The United States Department of the Interior has issued a beautifully illustrated series of pamphlets entitled, "National Park Portfolio." Magnificent photographs are shown of the Yellowstone, Yosemite, Sequoia, Mount Rainier, Crater Lake, Mesa Verde, Glacier, and Rocky Mountain National Parks.

The "Minnesota History Bulletin" for August, 1916, contains a lively story of a trip with the Minnesota exhibition at the Crystal Palace Exhibit in New York City, 1853. The principal part of the exhibition was a Buffalo Bull which led the Minnesota commissioners a strenuous life in the eastern city. There is a description of the Neill papers presented to the Minnesota Historical Society by the daughter of Rev. E. D. Neill, a noted historian of the colonial period.

The history teachers of another State have organized themselves for the purpose of professional advancement. A West Virginia History Teachers' Association has been formed recently, and Mr. Charles E. Hedrick, of the State Normal School at Glenville, was chosen president, and Miss Dora Newman, of Fairmount, secretary.

The custom of celebrating in the schools a day given up to the State's history, government and institutions, has been adopted by Minnesota. The State Department of Education has issued a bulletin giving a brief statement concerning the national features, resources, etc., of the State, and suggestions to teachers for the observance of Minnesota Day.

Prof. A. W. Risley, of the New York State College for Teachers at Albany, contributed to the Journal of the New York State Teachers' Association for October, 1916 (Vol. 3, No. 6), a paper entitled, "International Law and the Present European War."

The Journal of the Philadelphia Chamber of Commerce for November, 1916, contains an article by Dr. John P. Garber, Superintendent of Schools of Philadelphia, upon "The Education of the Adult Immigrant."

The Texas History Teachers' Association met at Fort Worth on December 1. The following program was prepared: "What Should History Mean to the High School Teacher?" by Prof. E. C. Barker, chairman of School of History, University of Texas; "What Results Should the History Teacher Obtain?" by Dr. C. C. Pearson, Houston High School, and "How Can the Results of History Teaching be Best Tested?" by S. E. Frost, Fort Worth High School; E. D. Criddle, North Texas Normal, and Superintendent W. B. Ferguson, Wolfe City.

The annual report of the United States Secretary of the Navy for the year 1916 contains an interesting statement of the educational plan proposed for the Navy by Secretary Daniels. The educational work has been greatly expanded during the past year until at the present time the Secretary can state that "every man in the Navy is a student from the Admiral in the War College to the midshipman at the Naval Academy and the apprentice in the Training Station and afloat." A wide variety of industrial courses is opened by the Navy to ambitious young men, training in electricity, in machine shop work, in engine construction, control in the work of shipwrights, ship fitters, blacksmiths, painters and plumbers, and also in the clerical work of expert stenographers, typewriters, bookkeepers, etc. Opportunities are given those who desire to train for hospital work, and boys with musical talent are taught in schools at Norfolk and San Francisco.

"Revolutionary Leaders of North Carolina" is the title of Number 2 of the North Carolina State Normal and Industrial College Historical Publications. The papers consist of a series of lectures delivered in the spring of 1913 by Mr. R. D. W. Connor, secretary of the North Carolina Historical Commission. The pamphlet contains, first, a general description of the revolutionary movement in North Carolina; this is followed by biographical accounts of John Harney, Cornelius Hornett, Richard Caswell and Samuel Johnston.

"History in the Grades" is the subject of Number 30 of "Teaching," issued by the Kansas State Normal School at Emporia. The pamphlet furnishes valuable suggestions concerning the work in each of the grades. It gives references to the source of historic pictures, and there is an edi-



torial account illustrated with many views, showing how construction work can be introduced in the history course in the grades. A bibliography of history stories for the grades accompanies the general articles.

The Metropolitan Museum of Arts published in connection with the November number of its Bulletin a four-page leaflet entitled, "Children's Bulletin," which tells the story of Agnos and Pyxis, and is preceded by a picture of the Judgment of Paris, a design found on a Greek Toilet Box.

The papers presented at the College Teachers' Session of the Pacific Coast Branch of the American Historical Association, held at Leland Stanford, Junior, University, November 27, 1915, have recently been printed under the title, "The Freshman Year of History in College." The pamphlet contains three papers, as follows: "The Relation between High School History and Freshman History," by Edith Jordan Gardner; "Freshman History at the University of California," by Everett S. Brown, and "Present Tendencies in the Teaching of Freshman History," by Arley Barthlow Show. The paper on "Freshman History at the University of California" was published in the HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE for October, 1916.

"The Mexican Review," of which three numbers appeared up to December 1, is published in Washington, D. C., and is devoted to "the enlightenment of the American people in respect to the hopes, ambitions, beneficent intentions and accomplishments of the constitutionalist government of the Republic of Mexico."

#### PACIFIC COAST BRANCH.

The Pacific Coast Branch of the American Historical Association held its thirteenth annual meeting at San Diego, December 1 and 2. The program was as follows: Friday afternoon, "The United States in the Caribbean," by Prof. Waldemar C. Westergaard, Pomona College; "What is Nationality?" by Prof. Tully C. Knoles, University of Southern California; "Town and Municipal Government in the Early Days of Utah," by Prof. Levi E. Young, University of Utah. Friday evening, Prof. Henry Morse Stephens, presiding, informal addresses. Saturday morning, organizations' session. A. Addressees, "Thirty-three Years of Historical Activity," by James M. Guinn, secretary of the Southern California Historical Association; "The Work of the California Historical Survey Commission," by Owen C. Coy, secretary and archivist of the Commission. B. Business session. 1. Reports of committees. 2. Election of officers. 3. New business. C. Tours of exhibits. "A County Historical Collection," by Mrs. Margaret V. Allen, curator of the San Diego Pioneer Society; "Four of the Ethnological Buildings and an Explanation of the School of American Archaeology and Its Work," by Edgar L. Hewett, director of the School of American Archaeology. Saturday afternoon, Teachers' Session. "Motivation of History in the Elementary School," by W. L. Stephens, Superintendent of Schools, Long Beach; "The Development of Initiative in the High School Student of History," by Sara L. Dole, Manual Arts High School, Los Angeles; discussion of papers 1 and 2; "Research Work for the Junior College Student," by Dr. Frederic W. Sanders, Hollywood Junior College; discussion. "History Teaching in the Secondary School from the Standpoint of the College and University," by Prof. Ephraim D. Adams, Stanford University. Discussion. The officers of the branch are as follows: President, Joseph Schafer, University of Oregon; vice-president, Jeanne Elizabeth Wier, University of Nevada; secretary-

treasurer, William A. Morris, University of California; the Council, the above officers and Prof. Richard F. Scholz, University of California; Prof. Percy A. Martin, Stanford University, and Miss Jane E. Harnett, Long Beach High School; Program Committee, Robert G. Cleland, Miss Jane Harnett, E. E. Robinson, R. H. Lutz and H. I. Priestley; Committee on Arrangements, W. F. Bliss, Allen H. Wright, Mrs. Margaret V. Allen, Miss Harriet L. Bromley, N. A. N. Clevon.

#### FALL MEETING OF THE NORTHWESTERN ASSOCIATION OF HISTORY, GOVERNMENT AND ECONOMICS TEACHERS.

A meeting of the Northwestern Association of History, Government and Economics Teachers was held in the Lewis and Clark High School, Spokane, on the 26th and 27th of October.

The program for the session of the 26th consisted of an address by Dr. Thomas M. Marshall, of the University of Idaho, on "Western History as a Field for Study." Dr. Marshall told of some of the more important collections of materials for the study and writing of the history of the Pacific Coast, and something of what had been done already by writers in the field. He emphasized the importance of collecting material for economic and social studies. This address was followed by a round table discussion on "Some Special Methods in History Teaching," led by Miss Fannie Johnston, of the State Normal School, Cheney, Wash.

On the 27th, Prof. O. H. Richardson, of the University of Washington, gave a most enlightening address on "The Present Situation in the Balkans." He traced briefly the place of the Balkan States in the precipitation of the present European crisis, and then taking up each State separately, showed its part in the conflict, how far its interests are involved, and its influence upon the ultimate outcome.

The last part of the second session was given to the consideration of a report from a committee on the formulation of the objects of history teaching appointed at the spring meeting of the association. The committee consisted of Prof. Leroy F. Jackson, State College of Washington, chairman; Prof. Edward McMahon, University of Washington; Prof. C. S. Kingston, Cheney Normal; Mr. Ransom A. Mackie, Queen Anne High School, Seattle, and Miss Margaret Boyle, of the Butte (Montana) High School. The committee, after enumerating several minor aims, stated that they considered the two essential values of history instruction to be: (1) A familiarity with social phenomena and facility in drawing conclusions from them, and (2) the development of an historical point of view. The report was adopted with a motion that it be printed and distributed to the members.

#### OKLAHOMA HISTORY TEACHERS.

On December 1, the History Section of the Oklahoma State Teachers' Association held its regular annual meeting. The following program was presented: Chairman, Miss Margaret Mitchell, Central State Normal School, Edmond; secretary, Miss Stella Barton, High School, Muskogee. "Use of Illustrative Material in Teaching Local History," by Miss Lucy Jeston Hampton, Central State Normal School, Edmond; "The Relation of Folklore to History," by Walter S. Campbell, State University, Norman; "The Study of History as a Preparation for Life," by E. E. Holmes, Henry Kendall College, Tulsa; and "Advantages to be Derived from a Permanent History Teachers' Association," by C. W. Turner, High School, Oklahoma City. When the program was finished the one hundred and

twenty-five teachers present unanimously voted to organize an independent Oklahoma History Teachers' Association. The new society will retain its connection with the State Teachers' Association, and have its usual sectional meeting, but will hold another annual meeting in May. Prof. R. G. Sears, of the Ada State Normal School, was elected president and Miss Jeanette Gordon, of the Oklahoma City High School, was elected secretary. An Executive Committee, consisting of Mr. C. W. Turner, head of Oklahoma City High School History Department, chairman; Dean J. S. Buchanan, head of the Oklahoma University History Department, and Miss Margaret Mitchell, of the Central State Normal School. This committee is to draft a suitable constitution and by-laws, prepare a program, and fix the time and place for the next meeting.

#### NEW YORK HISTORY TEACHERS.

The History Section of the New York Teachers' Association met in the Hutchinson High School, Buffalo, N. Y., November 27 and 28, with Prof. Edgar Dawson, of Hunter College, in the chair. The general subject under discussion was local civics, local history, and local archives. The subject of local civics was discussed by Dr. J. Lynn Barnard, of the School of Pedagogy, Philadelphia; the teaching of local history was treated by Albert E. McKinley, of the University of Pennsylvania, and the preservation and use of public archives and records were discussed by Dr. James Sullivan, New York State Historian. Following the presentation of these papers a round table discussion was had concerning the difficulties in the way of teaching local history and civics, and how these difficulties might be met. Among those who took part in the discussion were: Inspector Avery W. Skinner, State Department of Education; Miss Emily M. Totman, Oneida High School; Mr. Charles L. Hewitt, Syracuse East High School; Mr. Charles M. Whitney, Buffalo High School; Miss Rachel M. Jarrold, Fredonia State Normal School; Mr. Edward P. Smith, North Tonawanda High School; Principal George E. Baldwin, Salem High School; Miss Marion S. Skeels, Owego High School.

#### UNIVERSITY TRAINING FOR PUBLIC SERVICE.

How urban universities may aid in the training for public service was discussed at the meeting of the Association of Urban Universities, November 15 to 17, 1915, held in Cincinnati. A report of the meeting has recently appeared as Bulletin No. 30, 1916, of the United States Bureau of Education. The Bulletin prints the principal papers presented at the meeting. Among the topics treated is "The Need of Co-operation between Universities and Municipal Corporations." The paper shows that there was a demand for such service, that business methods can be applied to the conduct of municipal affairs, but that there was need of further investigation of the problems of public service. Methods of preparation for public service were discussed and illustrations given from the practice of the New York Training School for Public Service, and also from the field work carried on by many universities, particularly the Municipal University of Akron, O. Much attention was given to the results of co-operative training for public service. While at least one of the papers dealt rather with what results should be attained, most of the discussion was upon what actual values had been shown. These may be named as practical efficiency, an encouragement of unofficial activity, a more intimate association of the university scholar with his community, and the opening of university courses to persons already engaged in public service.

DES MOINES, IOWA, December 10, 1916.

EDITOR HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE: May I be permitted to call attention to a few errors in the report of the Iowa Social Science Teachers' meeting in your December issue.

In the first place, membership in this organization is not limited to university and college professors. The constitution expressly states that all teachers of political science, sociology, or history are eligible to membership in the society, and we are most anxious to have this fact clearly understood.

In the second place, some numbers were omitted from the program in your account. On Thursday afternoon two papers were read: "The Iowa Primary Law," by Henry J. Peterson, Professor of Political Science, Iowa Teachers' College, and "The Teaching of Iowa History in the Schools of Iowa," by Dr. Dan E. Clark, of the State Historical Society, Iowa City, Iowa. This meeting was followed by the annual dinner and business session. In the absence of the president, Prof. Louis B. Schmidt, of the Iowa State College, the meeting was in charge of the chairman of the Executive Committee, Prof. Olynthus B. Clark, of Drake University. Officers were chosen as follows: President, Prof. Gilbert G. Benjamin, Iowa University; vice-president, Prof. Henry J. Peterson, Iowa Teachers' College; secretary, Miss Martha Hutchinson, West High School, Des Moines; chairman of Executive Committee, Mr. Thomas Teakle, North High School, Des Moines.

On Friday afternoon, in a meeting technically known as the History and Civics Round Table, the opening address was given by Dr. Charles Zueblin, of Boston, on "The New Civic Spirit." A paper written by Prof. H. G. Plum, of Iowa University, was read by Mr. Clifford G. Moore, instructor in history, Iowa University, on the subject, "The Method of Teaching Current Events." Miss Mary M. Kaynor read a paper on "The Problem of Elementary History," and Miss Alice E. Moss discussed "Teaching Community Civics."

During the business session, the question of closer affiliation between the Round Table and the Society of Social Science Teachers was discussed, and in order to bring this about it was moved "that the history and civics round table become a part of the Iowa Society of Social Science Teachers; and that the chairman of the Executive Committee of the Society of Social Science Teachers, Mr. Thomas Teakle, and the secretary of the Society of Social Science Teachers, Miss Martha Hutchinson, be chairman and secretary respectively of the History and Civics Round Table for the coming year."

Yours very truly,  
MARTHA HUTCHINSON.

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## PERIODICAL LITERATURE

EDITED BY GERTRUDE BRAMLETTE RICHARDS, PH.D.

The "American Catholic Quarterly Review" for July contains a most interesting article on "Medieval Warfare" by Darley Dale. The article is based on a study of old chronicles, records of sieges, etc., and gives a vivid picture of the military methods employed by the medieval warriors.

The September number of the "North American Review" is of especial interest to historians. Henry Rutgers Marshall discusses "War and Progress;" Willis Fletcher Johnson tells "The Story of the Danish Islands;" John Hays Hammond, Jr., outlines "The Future Mechanism of Warfare;" Oswald Garrison Villard attempts to unravel "The Mystery of Woodrow Wilson;" Editor Harvey analyses "The Political Situation," and David Jayne Hill's first article on "President Wilson's Administration of Foreign Affairs," a detailed and quite impartial criticism of the present administration, are all worthy of note.

Lacey Amy's "With the Canadians from the Front" ("Canadian Magazine" for September) is the first of a series of articles on the Princess Pats, and gives plenty of proof of the grim determination and splendid courage displayed by this regiment. The same magazine contains a picturesque study of the "Signories of the Saguenay," by Hidalla Simard.

The August "Contemporary Review" has a most entertaining article "On the Supernatural Element in History," by Harold Temperly. He urges that the marvels of all ages be subjected to proper historic criticism, and asserts that after such tests are applied legendary conceptions will prove to be truer than the traditional historic account.

Herman C. Smith's "History of the Church of Latter-Day Saints," in the "Journal of American History," July-September, contains some rather interesting and unusual illustrations.

### HISTORY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATIONS.

Additions to and corrections of the following list of associations are requested by the editor of the MAGAZINE:

Alabama History Teachers' Association, T. L. Grove, Tuscaloosa, Ala., member of Executive Council.

American Historical Association—Secretary, Waldo G. Leland, Washington, D. C.

History Teachers' Association of Cincinnati, O.—Secretary, J. W. Ayres, High School, Madisonville, O.

History Section of Colorado Teachers' Association; Western Division, president, Elizabeth Chaney, Montrose; Southern Division, president, Lemuel Pitts, Denver; Eastern Division, president, Mark J. Sweaney, Colorado Springs.

History Teachers' Association of Florida—President, Miss Caroline Brevard, Woman's College, Tallahassee; secretary, Miss E. M. Williams, Jacksonville.

Indiana History Teachers' Association—President, Beverley W. Bond, Jr., Purdue University, Lafayette, Ind.; secretary, D. H. Eilsenberry, Muncie, Ind.

Iowa Society of Social Science Teachers—President, Prof. G. B. Benjamin, State University of Iowa; secretary, Miss M. A. Hutchinson, West Des Moines High School.

Jasper County, Mo., History Association—Secretary, Miss Elizabeth Peiffer, Carthage, Mo.

Kleio Club of University of Missouri.

Association of History Teachers of Middle States and Maryland—President, Miss Jessie C. Evans, William Penn High School, Philadelphia; secretary, Prof. L. R. Schuyler, City College, New York City.

Mississippi Valley Historical Association, Teachers' Section—Chairman, A. O. Thomas, Lincoln, Neb.; secretary, Howard C. Hill, State Normal School, Milwaukee, Wis.

Missouri Association of Teachers of History and Government—Secretary, Jesse E. Wrench, Columbia, Mo.

Nebraska History Teachers' Association—Secretary, Julia M. Wort, Lincoln, Neb.

New England History Teachers' Association—President, Miss Margaret McGill, Classical High School, Newtonville, Mass.; secretary, Mr. Horace Kidger, 82 Madison Avenue, Newtonville, Mass.

New York City Conference—Chairman, Fred H. Paine, East District High School, Brooklyn; secretary-treasurer, Miss Florence E. Stryker, State Normal School, Montclair, N. J.

New York State History Teachers' Association—President, Edgar Dawson, Hunter College, New York City; secretary, R. Sherman Stowell, West High School, Rochester, N. Y.

History Teachers' Section of Association of High School Teachers of North Carolina—Chairman, Miss Catherine Albertson, Elizabeth City, N. C.

History, Civics and Social Science Section of North Dakota Educational Association—President, H. C. Fish, State Normal School, Minot; secretary, Miss Hazel Nielson, High School, Fargo.

Northwest Association of Teachers of History, Economics and Government—Secretary, Prof. L. T. Jackson, Pullman, Wash.

Ohio History Teachers' Association—Chairman, Wilbur H. Siebert, Ohio State University, Columbus; secretary, W. C. Harris, Ohio State University.

Political Science Club of students who have majored in history at Ohio State University.

Rhode Island History Teachers' Association—Secretary, A. Howard Williamson, Technical High School, Providence, R. I.

Oklahoma History Teachers' Association—President, Prof. R. G. Sears, State Normal School, Ada; secretary, Miss Jeanette Gordon, High School, Oklahoma City.

South Dakota History Teachers' Association—Secretary, Edwin Ott, Sioux Falls, S. D.

Tennessee History Teachers' Association—Secretary-treasurer, Max Souby, Murfreesboro, Tenn.

Texas History Teachers' Section of the State Teachers' Association—President, Frederic Duncalf, Austin, Texas; secretary, L. F. McKay, Temple, Texas.

Twin City History Teachers' Association—President, Miss Medora Jordan, The Leamington, Minneapolis; secretary, Miss L. M. Ickler, 648 Delaware Avenue, St. Paul, Minn.

Virginia History Teachers' Section of Virginia State Teachers' Association—President, Prof. J. M. Lear, Farmville; secretary, Katherine Wicker, Norfolk, Va.

Teachers' Historical Association of Western Pennsylvania—Secretary, Anna Ankrom, 1108 Franklin Avenue, Wilkensburg, Pa.

West Virginia History Teachers' Association—President, Charles E. Hedrick, Glenville; secretary, Dora Newman, of Fairmont.

Wisconsin History Teachers' Association—Chairman, A. C. Kingsford, Baraboo High School; secretary, A. H. Sanford, La Crosse Normal School.

## BOOK REVIEWS

EDITED BY PROFESSOR WAYLAND J. CHASE,  
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

KRUEGER, FRITZ-KONRADN. *Government and Politics of the German Empire*. Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1915. Pp. xi, 399. \$1.00.

Mr. Krüger's little volume is a useful manual concerning German life and politics written from a strongly nationalistic point of view. The style and language are simple, and there is no attempt to go into detail unimportant for the general student of foreign governments. An effort is made to make German government more easily understood by the American reader by introducing frequent comparisons and contrasts with the governments under which our people live. Many pictures are given of the men who have helped to make modern Germany, and a number of charts present graphically the strength of the various groups of opinion which are the basis of German political life. At the end of each chapter is a short bibliography of easily accessible works to guide the student in further study. A critical bibliography, rather extended for so small a work, evidently intended for the beginner, concludes the volume. The book should be decidedly useful both for the student who wishes a brief elementary treatise on Germany and for the general reader.

CHESTER LLOYD-JONES.

University of Wisconsin.

MATHEWS, NATHAN. *Municipal Charters: A Discussion of the Essentials of a City Charter*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1914. Pp. viii, 210. \$2.00.

Twenty-five years' connection with municipal affairs makes this volume by an ex-mayor of Boston one in which practical experience has greater emphasis than theory. The first ninety-three pages are devoted to commentary. Mr. Mathews considers most of the radical proposals for changes in municipal government ill advised. He considers that there are serious disadvantages in the radical extension of home rule to cities, and favors concentrating authority in the hands of a mayor rather than of a commission. In the light of Massachusetts experience, it is maintained that the municipal public services ought to be under the control of a State civil service commission. The chapters on administration emphasize the necessity of concentrating the responsibility for the work of the several departments in the hands of single officers. The latter portion of the book is devoted to a draft charter with notes and comments suggesting ways in which the charter may be modified to fit local conditions or preference for different forms of organization. Other works present in greater detail the descriptive material of the introductory chapters, but there are few detailed drafts of actual charters which better merit study than the one here presented. It is presented in cogent English, and embraces experience rather than theory.

CHESTER LLOYD-JONES.

University of Wisconsin.

GOEBEL, JULIUS, JR., PH.D. *The Recognition Policy of the United States*. Studies in History, Economics and Public Law, Columbia University, LXVI, No. 1. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1915. Pp. 228. \$2.00.

This subject should never have been assigned for a doctor's thesis. It requires not so much the accumulation of a definite body of material, as a broad acquaintance with a vast field of fact, such as can come only with years of study and experience. More than the normal amount of

misinformation is scattered through its pages, and the evidences of lack of information are glaring. It is perhaps owing to immaturity also that the treatment is wrapped in subtlety to the point that theory clogs rather than explains. One-third is devoted to theory alone. Nevertheless one feels Mr. Goebel's ability, and his work constitutes a contribution. To add that he is a sound thinker does not imply that one always agrees with him.

He has given a history of the United States policy with regard to the recognition of new States and new governments, but not recognition of belligerency. He attributes to Jefferson in large measure the development of the American policy of recognition on the *de facto* rather than the *de jure* basis, and considers American practice an influential factor in causing nations generally to abandon the principle of legitimacy in such cases. He considers American practice also potent in differentiating recognition from intervention, but his theoretical tendencies prevent his full realization of the difficulty in separating the two in fact.

Mr. Goebel believes emphatically in the desirability of the *de facto* system, but the glaring defect in his treatment is the lack of any discussion of the *criteria* which determine what government is *de facto*. It is possible that had he considered this phase of the subject more fully he might have classified Seward's recognition policy as an attempt to deal with this problem, rather than as a relapse toward legitimacy; yet his interpretation may be correct. At any rate, he finds that the United States reverted after Seward to the *de facto* policy, though exercising greater caution than before the Civil War. The Panama episode he considers not as determining a new policy, but, as President Roosevelt wished it to be considered, an exception due to exceptional conditions. It is probably rather with hope than with confidence he assigns President Wilson's Mexico policy to the same category. "The fact that the question of recognition constantly occurs would render a departure from the enlightened principles heretofore established a matter of grave import, while the dangers attending a relapse into the discarded theory and practice of legitimacy would be no less real and substantial because it was made under the guise of promoting constitutionalism."

CARL RUSSELL FISH.

The University of Wisconsin.

TOWNE, EZRA THAYER. *Social Problems: A Study of Present-Day Social Conditions*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1916. Pp. xviii + 406. \$1.00.

President Vincent, of the University of Minnesota, in a recent article, says: "A new conception is making its way into the study of citizenship. It is the philosophy of social evolution." The dawning of this new day has been marked by an agitation for a full year course in civics in which not only the principles of political science would be taught, but also those of social science. In response to this demand, there have appeared several books on elementary sociology, among them the one now considered.

The aim of this book is "to bring before the students of social problems the facts regarding present-day conditions; to indicate certain weaknesses in our social order; to show what has already been done and is being done toward elimination of these weaknesses; and to impress upon these students, through presentation of such facts, the possibilities of wise, sane, constructive, social action."

Professor Towne has treated the subject logically, simply, in a language readily comprehended by pupils of high school age. Technical terms are not used, and he has not indulged in abstract sociological theorizing. There is nothing objectionable in the manner of presentation which

would offend the most critical—a statement which cannot be made of most works on sociology when considered for high school use. The subjects treated are population, immigration, labor, unemployment, defectives and their treatment, prevention and punishment of crime, the family, the liquor problem, poverty, conservation of natural resources, of plant and animal life, and of human life.

Too many statistics are quoted in the text, some of which should have been relegated to the end of the chapter or to the end of the book. Perhaps, considering the nature of the subject treated, this might not have been desirable. A historical error appears to have been made where the author refers to the American, or Know Nothing Party, as though there were two distinct parties (page 48).

Copious references to authority are given, and an excellent bibliography is found at the end of the chapters, most of the material of which can be obtained by every school. At the end of each chapter are given references to supplementary reading and suggestive questions which lead to further investigation. In this book is given a chance to further socialize the course in civics. With the usual study of governmental forms for one part of the work, and "Social Problems," with attendant investigation for the remainder, a truly profitable year can be spent. If it should not seem desirable to give a year to citizenship, this book will be a valuable adjunct to the school library as a reference for civics, American history, or economics.

W. H. HATHAWAY.

Riverside High School, Milwaukee.

FORDHAM, MONTAGUE. *A Short History of English Rural Life*. New York: Charles Scribners' Sons, 1916. Pp. xvi, 183. \$1.25.

The author declares his book grew out of a countryman's lectures to English country people; it is certain that his account of country life reveals a countryman's sympathy for the subject as well as a scholar's grasp of it. Basing this study, in part, on his own original investigation, and in larger measure on the work of Vinogradoff, Prothero, Oman, Jusseraud and others, he has succeeded not only in summarizing helpfully and explaining clearly the varying and often perplexing aspects of rural industry in medieval England, but also in picturing vividly rural life in the different periods, and making plain the agencies and influences that brought about the changes in it. The relation, too, between changing rural conditions and the religious and political development of England is well brought out. Very helpful to high school teachers of history and well within the range of usefulness for their pupils, it is of distinct value for the general reader, and so deserves a place in both school and public library. Save for an excellent plan of a twelfth century manor, it is not illustrated.

SCHAEFFER, HENRY. *The Social Legislation of the Primitive Semites*. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1915. Pp. 245. \$2.35.

This book is an admirable study of primitive Semitic social life as expressed in the legislation of Babylonia and in Babylonian contract tablets, in the Hebraic code, in Mohammedan jurisprudence, and modern Arabic survivals. It is entirely scholarly in character, is written in the language of the doctoral dissertation—of which it is, in fact, an outgrowth—and makes no attempt at popular presentation. The frequent use of transliterated Hebraic, Babylonian and Arabic terms without explanation debars the book from recommendation as a reference work for high schools, and makes it rather difficult even for college use.

It should be in every college library, however, and will be found a profitable source of information by teachers of history who are interested in any phase of tribal development. It is especially useful to advanced students and teachers of sociology and ancient history.

The first four chapters present the laws of the family and inheritance under the Semitic patriarchal system. These are followed by single chapters on slavery, interest, pledges, the social problem, and poor laws. The last five chapters (10-14) center about the ancient Semitic system of land tenure and the closely related problems of taxation and tribute. Here especially Doctor Schaeffer has done a real service. The material which he presents must still be co-ordinated with the whole problem of ancient land tenure and its development.

W. L. WESTERMANN.

University of Wisconsin.

SCHÉVILL, FERDINAND. *The Making of Modern Germany*.

Six public lectures delivered in Chicago in 1915. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co., 1916. Pp. 259. \$1.25, net.

As the title indicates, this book is an amplification of six lectures delivered in 1915. Such a book has disadvantages, but for one wishing a brief, clear and readable survey of modern German, or rather Prussian, history it has great advantages. The author's thorough scholarship and his gift of incisive statement make the book very satisfactory. His first thirty pages deal with the rise of Brandenburg up to the time of Frederick the Great. Two-fifths of the space is used to carry the story to 1815, and the period since 1871 received the fullest treatment. In dealing with the causes of the present war, Dr. Schéவில் shows his sympathy with the moderate German point of view, but without any raving against England. In several appendices he gives convenient surveys of such problems as the Polish question, Alsace-Lorraine, etc. The book should prove useful to high school students.

Ohio State University.

CLARENCE PERKINS.

SCHMITT, BERNADOTTE EVERLY. *England and Germany, 1740-1914*. Princeton University Press, 1916. Pp. ix, 524. \$2.00, net.

During the past two years hosts of war books have been published, but most of those touching the Anglo-German rivalry have been tintured with bitterness. Dr. Schmitt takes sides with Great Britain, but only after a very thorough exposition of the historical evidence. He starts with a resumé of recent British imperial history and a longer survey of German government and policies, and especially of the recent German craze for expansion. Chapter V deals with the commercial rivalry between Germany and Great Britain. Here the author shows that in the five years before the war British trade and industry were more prosperous than ever before, and that British exporters were getting fully their share of the new business of the world. On the other hand, "the economic condition of Germany was far from roseate." Hence to say that Britain was angry because Germany was getting ahead of her, and therefore made war on Germany, is a succession of brazen falsehoods, he claims.

With Chapter VI the author takes up the history of diplomatic relations between England and Germany, on the whole friendly up to 1890, after that more and more unfriendly. He deals quite fully with the formation of the Ententes and the naval rivalry, and labors to disprove the German obsession that the great aim of British policy was to encircle Germany. Chapters X-XV comprise the latter

half of the book, and deal more fully with the near Eastern question and its influence on Anglo-German relations, the Moroccan disputes, especially that of 1911 and its effects, and the immediate causes of the great war.

Throughout the book Dr. Schmitt shows good mastery of the available sources of information. The book is quite readable and very informing. Most of the facts he brings out can be found in other places, but nowhere so conveniently as here. The book is well worth the attention of the general reader, and will prove a useful reference work for school libraries.

CLARENCE PERKINS.

Ohio State University.

CHARNWOOD, GODFREY R. B., BARON. Abraham Lincoln. (Makers of the Nineteenth Century, edited by Basil (Williams.) New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1916. Pp. VII, 479. \$1.75.

This is a book no intelligent person interested in American history can afford to leave unread. It is the most complete and satisfying interpretation of Lincoln, and its style far surpasses all but a few of the volumes in which one must seek our history. It does not give a complete narrative, and its quality unfits it for the high school student, but it is to be hoped that few high school students in the future will fail to receive some of its benefits, through the medium of their teachers.

CARL RUSSELL FISH.

University of Wisconsin.

RUSSELL, WILLIAM F. Economy in Secondary Education. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Co., 1916. Pp. viii, 74. 35 cents.

This little monograph in the Riverside Educational Series offers suggestiveness not alone to the principal and superintendent, but to the teacher as well, for especially the topics, economy through an increase of time devoted to study, economy through an improvement of instruction, and economy through the organization of the program of study, are closely related to the aims and efforts of all teachers. To the last named topic, especially large space is given, and an effective presentation is made of the need of readjustment of organization of the twelve grades of elementary and secondary schools to avoid present waste through vain repetition of subject matter, and through imperfect articulation of the lower and upper groups of these grades. The declared need of thoroughgoing revision of program thrusts on the teachers of history such questions as these: Is history in the higher grades sufficiently built upon that which is taught in the lower? If all other subjects in the seventh and eighth grades are to be challenged anew, as to their right to a place there, must not inquiry be made again as to what units of history and civics can best be taught there? Can we not more advantageously adapt our program of history and civics to that great majority of pupils who do not reach the senior year of high school. Thought along these and parallel lines is suggested and well directed by this little book.

ALLEN, GEORGE H. The Great War: Causes of and Motives For. With an introduction by William Howard Taft. Volume I. Second edition, revised. Philadelphia: George Barrie's Sons, 1915. Pp. xxx, 377. \$5.00.

Of the many volumes dealing with the Great War, few, in the reviewer's judgment, have presented the causes of that gigantic struggle more fully and more impartially than the work under survey.

Doctor Allen divides the causes of the war into two classes, potential and positive. Among the potential causes, the author lists racial prejudices, conflicting geographic and ethnographic boundaries, bitterness due to former wars, rival colonial ambitions, naval competition between Germany and Great Britain, German so-called *welt-politik*, international suspicion, and the irreconcilable interests of Teuton and Slav in the Balkan peninsula.

In an extensive chapter, the author describes the tangled skein of affairs and rival policies in the Balkans which culminated in the tragedy at Sarajevo, the immediate or positive cause of the war.

The attempts of Germany to preserve the general peace on the basis of absolute non-interference between Austria and Serbia—the only basis on which, according to the evidence, she made any such effort—and the earnest but fruitless efforts of Great Britain to secure a conference for mediation and conciliation are described with fulness and sympathy. The outrage on Belgium—the immediate cause of Great Britain's entrance into the war—and the motives which determined the course of Japan, Turkey and Italy, are clearly presented. Italy's case is discussed with especial keen and discriminating insight.

Doctor Allen thinks commercial rivalry a negligible factor in causing the war. He holds the evidence insufficient to prove that the Teutonic powers deliberately provoked the war, though he inclines to the belief that they thought the opportunity good to obtain their aims without war. He is sympathetic with Germany's *welt-politik*. He considers her culpably responsible, however, in not supporting Earl Grey's efforts for mediation and conference. He believes Russia incurred grave responsibility in ordering general mobilization.

The volume contains many items of interest. For example, it will surprise many to learn that Russia publishes annually a larger number of books than the United States and Great Britain combined; that the Bank of Russia, when the war began, had "the largest agglomeration of the precious metals in any repository in the world" (page 59); that Constantinople is of insignificant commercial importance compared with its strategic value.

Certain details should be noted. The comparative table of statistics (page 79) would be improved by the inclusion of Russia, Austria, Italy and Japan. "Scutari" is erroneously used in the title to the illustration on page 332. The Triple Alliance was formed in 1882, not 1883 (page 31). Some will be disposed to question the statement that "the Kaiser has probably been a sincere friend of peace, especially with England" (page 139). It would seem that in a volume of this sort some discussion should have been included of the philosophy of Nietzsche, Treitschke, von Bernhardi and others; except for the barest mention, however, the subject is omitted.

The work is profusely illustrated, some illustrations being in color. It is well supplied with numerous and valuable maps. The index is a makeshift. There is no bibliography. The publishers have done their full part to make the work a success; it is well bound, and print and paper are of unusual excellence.

To any who desire a full, readable, instructive and non-partisan account of the causes of the war, this volume can be strongly recommended. If the remaining volumes in the series prove as able as the one reviewed, the whole will form a valuable adjunct to any library.

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## CONTENTS

War and Peace in the Light of History, by Prof. C. C. Eckhardt	-	43
Values of History Instruction, by a Committee of the Northwestern Association	- - - -	46
Pictorial Documents as Illustrating American History, by Frank Weitenkampf	- - - -	48
Some Aspects of Supervised Study in History, by Robert D. Armstrong	-	52
Construction for History in the Grades, by Mary A. Whitney	- -	60
American Historical Association Cincinnati Meetings	- - -	64
History Teachers' Associations	- - - -	65
Periodical Literature, edited by Dr. G. B. Richards	- - -	66
Reports from the Historical Field	- - - -	67
Notes; New Jersey Syllabus; Hakluyt Exhibit; National Election in School; A History Game		
Book Reviews, edited by Prof. W. J. Chase	- - - -	70
Recent Historical Publications, listed by Dr. C. A. Coulomb	- -	73

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## War and Peace in the Light of History

BY CARL CONRAD ECKHARDT, PH.D., ASSISTANT PROFESSOR OF HISTORY, UNIVERSITY OF COLORADO.

When I was requested to bring a message that history teachers need just at this time, I did not take a long time to choose; I selected "War and Peace in the Light of History." What I shall say to you I have been saying to myself many a time in the last two years, when it seemed that the main interest in present-day history is centered in war and wholesale destruction by the most advanced nations of the Occident and Orient. So it seemed fitting to consider what part war and peace have played in history, what the attitude of mankind has been toward both, and what the efforts are that have been made to eliminate war and to establish permanent peace.

History is the account of man's progress in society. It deals with man's efforts to develop his material, social, intellectual and spiritual well-being. While making these efforts he has had great obstacles to overcome, the forces of nature and himself; and man has been far more successful in overcoming the physical and biological forces of nature than in conquering human nature. By mechanical and electrical inventions, man has made steam and electricity do most of his work; he has annihilated distance; he has learned to fly in the air, to make submarines, to send messages by wireless. The desert has been made to bloom; the waterfall has been made to supply power to the wheels of industry; the mines of the earth have been forced to yield up their treasures; the phonograph records for all time the tones of our greatest singers and musicians.

Through man's understanding of biology and biological laws he has learned to create new varieties of vegetation, better breeds of animals. He has enabled the toothless man to chew, the armless man to do many mechanical acts by means of artificial arms; the deaf are provided with a hearing apparatus. Through surgical operations man has learned to give life to the dying child, by transmitting the blood from the veins of a well person. Through vaccination and other preventive measures man has been made immune to typhoid, smallpox, diphtheria, colds, malaria, yellow fever, cholera, the black plague.

Man has conquered nature and is conquering disease, but he cannot conquer himself. Man is his own worst enemy. He is working on many social problems, and with marked success. He is trying to become master of himself in his social relations, but his success here is not as striking as in his conquest of nature. Man has as yet been unable to wrestle successfully with the problem of eliminating war, the most costly and destructive enemy of social progress that he has yet encountered.

In all recorded history we find that there have been intermittent wars, and that the years when there has been peace are far outnumbered by the years during which there was war. According to the great publicist Bloch, who wrote on the "Future of War," during the 8,857 years from 1496 B. C. to 1861 A. D., there have been 8,180 years of war and 227 years of peace; 13 years of war to one of peace. This means that somewhere in the world there was war during these three and a third thousand years of history. It does not mean that every country on the average has had thirteen years of war to one year of peace. In the 140 years of our own history we have had seventeen years of war and one hundred and twenty-three years of peace, the ratio being seven years of peace to one of war. But, in the history of all nations some time or other, sooner or later, war has disrupted human society.

War has been an inevitable thing; war was bound to come. It is natural for human beings to have differences of opinion, it is natural for nations to compete and have grievances. It is natural for nations to attempt conquests at the expense of weaker neighbors; it is natural for nations to wish to dominate a certain continent; indeed, the whole world. So long as that condition exists there will inevitably be war.

Thinkers of the past have not merely regarded war as inevitable, but have gone farther and have regarded it as a beneficial institution. It has been pointed out that many wars have been of enormous benefit to humanity. The successful Greek wars of the fifth century B. C. made it possible for the superior civilization of the Greeks to continue its development, and for its fruits to refresh mankind for all time. Rome's wars of conquest made it possible for her superior political and legal institutions to be introduced into the life of the Mediterranean peoples, and the political unity thus established made it possible for Christianity to be spread over the whole civilized world. The interstate and civil wars of Italy in Renaissance times developed a superior intellectual attitude designated by the term individualism. The French wars from 1792 to 1795 developed the French national spirit and national consciousness, which have yielded rich fruits in the national life of the French. These are merely typical statements of sober historians and other students of society. They are found in our text-books and treatises, and we are emphasizing them in connection with our work as history teachers.

War has also been lauded for its moral and other values. It is pointed out that war develops such

moral qualities as patriotism, courage, self-sacrifice, efficiency, devotion to a lofty ideal, consideration for the welfare of others, willingness and ability to dispense with luxury.

War makes for physical strength, the elimination of the unfit. It prevents moral degeneracy and national dependence on other nations. So humane a writer as Ruskin praises war as follows: "All the pure and noble arts of peace are founded on war. . . . There is no great art possible to a nation but that which is based on battle. . . . All great nations learned their truth of word and strength of thought in war; they were nourished in war and wasted in peace; taught by war and deceived by peace; trained by war and betrayed by peace." ("Crown of Wild Olive.")

Some writers in Germany, England, the United States, and elsewhere have regarded war as a divine institution. Moltke, in Germany; the Englishman, Colonel Maude; our own American admirals, Fiske and Luce, say that war is an ordinance of God. Theodore Roosevelt says, "We must play a great part in the world, and especially perform those deeds of blood and valor, which above everything else bring national renown." ("Strenuous Life.")

Such, in brief, has been the place of war in history. It has been regarded as inevitable, inherently necessary, because of the pugnacious characteristics of men and society, a divine arrangement, which in spite of its horrors and destructiveness has produced such splendid moral and artistic results that it must be maintained.

But society has not been unanimous in regarding war as inevitable and beneficent. Ever since the remotest ages of recorded history there have been literary men, poets, philosophers, statesmen that have lauded peace and opposed war. There have been innumerable projects to make war impossible. Within the last twenty-five years peace societies have been organized in every country of the world, richly endowed organizations are conducting a propaganda against war and in favor of various methods to secure peace and make it enduring.

However ineffective this propaganda has been in securing its ultimate object, it can point with satisfaction to one glowing success, and that is that war is now no longer regarded by very many people as desirable. War is a thing to be avoided; the divineness of war is no longer asserted. Few people emphasize war's development of manly qualities and other alleged benefits. No one justifies war because of the things accompanying it. The nation that brings on a war loses the moral respect of other nations, and one great party in this country is appealing to the nation for re-election because it kept the country out of war.

Society is definitely facing the problem of war and its elimination. Never has so much attention been paid to this subject any time in history as now. Never before has there been such a sentiment in favor of peace, not merely temporary peace, but lasting peace, and enduring peace. Each of the belligerent nations of Europe openly proclaims that all it is fighting for is a permanent peace. Each has declared its willing-

ness to fight on for years longer if only thereby permanent and general peace can be secured. In all neutral countries the press is filled with attacks on the system that has produced this great war, it is demanding that something be done to prevent another world calamity. Preachers, teachers, public speakers are all directing attention to this great problem. Never before has there been such a propaganda for peace and against war.

Let us consider the main remedies that are being proposed to abolish war and to establish permanent peace. First and foremost of the plans being advocated in the press and on the platforms of this nation is military preparedness. The essence of this remedy as expounded in this country is, that in order to prevent being attacked by a hostile power the United States must make its army and navy so strong that all other nations will fear to attack it. If we wish to insure ourselves against war we must be so fully prepared for war that no nation will think of affronting us or attacking us. This is apparently a splendid peace method. It is embodied in the platforms of both political parties; it has been advocated from pulpits, by woman's clubs, by the National Educational Association, by almost every congressman that wishes to be returned to office, by every business man that wants to retain the patronage of his customers. We have had a national hysteria of preparedness. We have been told that if only the European powers had prepared for war there would have been no war. If England, Germany, France and Russia, instead of penuriously expending only one-third of their annual national income for their armies and navies, had spent two-thirds for military purposes, there would have been no war. If only their armies and navies had been prepared for war this great human calamity could not have occurred. And so the United States, in order to avoid such a calamity as has befallen Europe, appropriates the largest sum of money ever appropriated at any one time by any nation for military purposes. School boards are seriously considering the introduction of the cadet system into the high schools, and even into the grade schools, in order to prepare this nation for war as a peace-preserving measure—in which we are outdoing the European powers, for none of them have introduced military drill into their public schools.

With all due deference to the words of wisdom that have been uttered by our editors, preachers, National Education Association officers and others, I venture to say that our military preparedness program will be inadequate as a peace-preserving method. The unfortunate thing is that the munitions manufacturers, who have in this country had so much to do with frightening the American Congress and the American public into their preparedness hysteria, are doing the same thing in other countries. In every country there is a preparedness propaganda, and in every one of the great nations there has been an increased expenditure for armaments during the last fifteen years. The great trouble with the military preparedness argument is that it is such a good argument for any one

country that all other countries are quite ready to see its value for themselves. Instead of having only our nation making itself so strong in a military way that it cannot be attacked successfully by any power or group of powers, each of the other nations is trying to do the same thing; that is, each nation is trying to be stronger than every other nation, which is a mathematical impossibility. Each nation cannot be the strongest, but all the great nations are competing for this position; each is spending all the money it possibly can, and relatively the strength of the individual nations will be determined as before, by the amount of wealth each nation controls.

However, it is not my purpose especially to attack the idea of the ultimate efficacy of preparedness. But I do wish to show that the military preparedness propaganda indicates that there is a strong sentiment against war. Preparedness has been urged as a necessary preventive of war. Even this militaristic measure is regarded as a peaceful measure; its strongest advocates state that its purpose is to prevent war.

But, along with preparedness, there is another kind of peace propaganda that has been carried on for many decades, namely, the peace movement, which advocates joint international disarmament, international organization, a world legislature to codify international law and to formulate new laws as needed, a system of international courts to settle disputes that might lead to international friction and war, a world executive, with a world police force to enforce the observance of peace. Contrary to the ideas of the preparedness advocates this group of propagandists do not believe in the maxim, "If you wish peace, prepare for war;" they hold that "if you wish peace, prepare for peace." In every one of the great belligerent countries there are at least several organizations that are working not merely for the cessation of the present war, but are planning a campaign after the war to secure joint international action for the creation of institutions and sentiment that will prevent wars in the future. Some of these organizations were in existence before the outbreak of the war, some have been founded since the war broke out. In our own country there are several organizations with these ends in view.

The schemes advocated by these organizations are no longer merely in the realm of the visionary. One of the organizations that the war has produced in this country is the League to Enforce Peace. This has already had two sessions, which were attended by governors, mayors, educators, diplomats, congressmen, and capitalists. These meetings were presided over by ex-President Taft; at the second meeting President Wilson made a memorable address in support of the plan. Mr. Hughes has at various times spoken in favor of the League's program, and within the last two months Lord Bryce and Viscount Grey have given public utterance in England in support of the plan. A scheme that is fostered by such men, experienced in practical affairs, cannot be regarded as the chimera of visionaries.

Perhaps most significant is the fact that in the bill making the enormous appropriations for the increase of our navy in the next five years, is a clause authorizing the President of the United States to summon a conference of nations at a suitable time after the close of the war. If this conference unites in international disarmament, the President is authorized to stop the execution of those parts of the armament plan that have not yet been carried out.

So we may rightly say that the main public sentiment as regards war and peace in the world to-day is opposed to war and in favor of some method that will bring an enduring peace. War is more unpopular to-day than ever before; there never was such a desire for durable peace. Society has clearly stated the problem; two chief ways of achieving peace have been proposed: (1) preparedness, and (2) international organization. I do not mean to maintain that we are ready as yet for the full acceptance of a program of internationalism. It may take a hundred years or more before the world sees the wisdom of applying the plan. But it should be stated that in this country the chief public men that are advocating preparedness, such as Wilson, Hughes, Taft, regard this as a temporary measure, and they are also advocating world organization. Prominent public men in the belligerent countries have the same attitude.

But we can never have an internationalism that will permanently bring peace until the following things have been achieved:

1. There must be created an international sentiment in all the nations in the world. Our present narrow patriotism, bigoted nationalism, must be greatly modified. The nations must learn to feel that national ambitions, national ideals are not the highest good, that there is a still higher good, the rights of humanity.

2. There must be created a world machinery, supported by the states of the world. There must be created an international personnel, a body of officers that can be trusted, whose sense of fairness and justice is well recognized, so that nations will be willing to entrust their interests to world courts and world administrative officers.

Whatever else may be necessary for a world state, these two things cannot be wanting, an international sentiment and an effective, trustworthy administrative personnel. This is largely a task of education, of creating public sentiment. Never was a greater educational task offered to the teachers of the world. The students of to-day will be the public of the future. Are they going to be bigoted nationalists? Are they going to be actuated by a narrow patriotism that will sanction the humiliation of Mexico or any other weaker country merely because the United States has a more powerful military equipment? Will they be willing to rush into war every time there is international friction? Will they fight first and reason afterwards?

The problem is one not only for the teachers of Colorado and America, but for the educators of every advanced nation of the world. It will take decades

to prepare the minds of the coming generations. This movement of progress will meet with much inertia, much skepticism and ridicule. There will be many hard-headed practical men who will continue to say: "War is as old as history, there will always be war. You cannot change human nature." But the same arguments have been used time and again concerning other things. Slavery, too, was as old as history. It was a legalized institution; it was divinely ordained. Great writers defended it. In the South, before the Civil War, there was not a college president or professor or minister or public man that did not defend it. It was maintained that slavery was fundamental to the best interests of society. But slavery disappeared.

It used to be felt that religious uniformity was necessary; religious toleration would disrupt society, and many a religious civil war was fought against religious toleration. But now we have religious toleration in all advanced countries. It used to be argued, with the Scriptures as authority, that woman must be kept in a position inferior to man; that woman is the inferior of man mentally, physically, spiritually. For a long time this was firmly believed. But now in many countries woman has been given rights that make her the equal of man, and neither man nor woman has suffered in consequence. It used to be maintained that the use of alcoholic liquor could never be abolished. Man has always used intoxicants; you cannot change human nature. But half the United States is dry today, and the European governments are working toward the abolition of strong drink.

In all of these cases, the conservative, anti-reform forces were as firmly entrenched in precedent, legality, scriptural authority, as the anti-peace crowd is to-day. But the reforms came anyway.

This does not necessarily prove that war is going to be abolished. But it does make clear that the forces of conservatism have been beaten time and again when they had the same attitude that they now take toward war. In the light of history it is not certain that war will always prevail. In the light of history, when human society gets ready to abolish an age-long evil, it does it. It is merely getting ready for it that is important. Society is more ready to abolish war than it ever has been before. Greater effort is being expended on this problem than in any previous age. The terribleness of war has never been more fully known and recognized than at the present time.

No one can tell what the outcome will be. But for optimists, and especially for us history teachers, who know how the alleged impossible things of the past have become achievements, the only thing to do is confidently to teach that in the light of history war is not necessarily here to stay, and that the world will get permanent peace when it is sufficiently educated morally to see that other nations have rights, and that world peace cannot exist until there is a world state. To secure this desideratum much education is necessary, and all history teachers ought to be glad for an opportunity to do their part in this important educational work.<sup>1</sup>

## Values of History Instruction

REPORT OF A COMMITTEE OF THE NORTHWESTERN ASSOCIATION.

*To the Members of the Northwestern Association of History, Government and Economics Teachers:*

Your committee appointed at the meeting of the association last April to draw up a statement of what history instruction aims to do for general education reports as follows:

History, like every other study, has certain essential values, and certain educational by-products. The word *by-products* is used to include those values that accrue to the student from the study of history, but which are only incidental. The same returns may be obtained in an equal or greater degree from other studies, or from training outside of school. These by-products, however, must be taken into consideration by the educational administrator in estimating the full value of history for the school curriculum, and to a lesser degree by the teacher in presenting the subject in the classroom. Your committee feels that it is important that both administrator and teacher recognize these minor returns as merely by-products, not to be confused with the essential values of history instruction.

THE MOST IMPORTANT BY-PRODUCTS OF HISTORY INSTRUCTION.

1. Owing to the fact that history deals with complex phenomena, it affords a good opportunity for the weighing and balancing of arguments and the *forming of judgments* on the strength of the evidence.
2. Dealing with strange lands and old customs full of vital human interest, it gives a splendid *stimulus to the imagination*.
3. Politics forming a considerable part of the story of the past historical study stimulates an interest in one's country, and lays a *basis for intelligent patriotism*.

ESSENTIAL VALUES OF HISTORY INSTRUCTION.

We speak of essential values of historical study, meaning thereby those returns that are peculiar to the subject, and so important as to compel their presentation—those values that put history into the curriculum and keep it there. These appear to the committee to

<sup>1</sup> A paper read before the History Section of the Colorado State Teachers' Association, Denver, Col., November 2, 1916.

be: (1) a familiarity with social phenomena, or what might be called social experience, and (2) the development of an historical point of view.

Historical instruction sets out consciously to give the student that contact with human society that comes otherwise merely as an incident of every-day life. The reading and study of history is social experience concentrated and administered according to rule and measure. It crowds into a few hours time the greatest and finest experiences of the ages. The boy who at sixteen years of age has no acquaintances but his neighbors, and no experiences but the prosy happenings of the immediate community, may in a year of historical study rise above both time and space and revel in a host of new emotions and desires—spread his tent with Abraham, help Alexander to found a world empire, stroll with Socrates beneath the walls of Athens, march to world conquest with the Roman legions, listen to wandering minstrels within the massive walls of a baron's castle, or march in all the trappings of chivalry to redeem the Holy City. With Petrarch or Michelangelo he may give the world a new art, and with Luther or Loyola fire mankind with religious enthusiasm. This same inconspicuous youth may live, in part at least, the life of king, philosopher, peasant, zealot, barbarian, baron, priest and acolyte. In the world of his reading he wears a thousand kinds of dress, lives in strange habitations, and eats strange foods. He is present when empires fall, when creeds crumble, when all the world goes wild over some new thing. He sees barbarous hordes grow into great nations, slaves and serfs rise to economic and political independence, well-established institutions and beliefs decay and disappear. If he possesses spirit and a heart he thrills with enthusiasm for some struggling cause, and catches from a great leader the splendid animus that makes the world move. Through his historical study he is gaining a great social experience, and is fitting himself for a broader and saner social life.

The same results, it is true, may be obtained through a more personal contact with society, through social and business activity, by association with great leaders and taking an active part in large social, economic, and political enterprises, by travel, by reading newspapers and magazines and imaginative literature, especially the novel and the drama. But for most persons all this is impossible, or comes only as the result of a life's activity. Few of us are privileged to be associated personally with big movements, or to be on intimate terms with great leaders. Our activities are in limited fields.

Yet as citizens of a democracy, and as members of a rapidly developing world-society, we are all called upon to think and act upon national and world questions—matters that call for big vision and wide social experience. History, a study of the development of human society, is a short-cut to this necessary urbanity. It is here that the student gathers the facts, observes the tendencies, forms the judgments that help him to make enlightened decisions when called upon to act in present-day society. Not that the so-called "lessons of history" can be concretely applied to

contemporary problems, for this is rarely the case. There are few rule-of-thumb principles that can be used in determining social action. The phenomena are so complex that they defy generalization. There are few rules such as are laid down in the more exact sciences that the man of limited experience may depend upon in forming his conclusions and basing his action. Social decisions must be based, for the most part, on opinions, the result of a wide social experience. They can rarely be proved to be right or wrong. The sanity of public action in a democratic society must, therefore, depend largely upon the breadth of social experience, the acquaintance with varied social phenomena that the individual members possess.

It is the object of instruction in history and the other social sciences to supply the material for this cosmopolitan outlook. In the school courses a beginning is made in presenting material and developing a point of view, and an impetus is given toward independent reading throughout life. With the increasing complexity of our society, and the growing movement towards democracy, it seems clear that the work of instruction in the social sciences must become more and more important.

The second, and really unique, function of history teaching is to develop what may be called a historical point of view. It is a common criticism of history that it deals with the dead past, while the really live man should have his attention focused assiduously upon the present. No one, assuredly, will attempt to argue against a man's attentive study of his own age, its capabilities, its wants, its temper. But a man must have a wholly distorted and confused conception of his own times unless he sees them as a part of a much larger thing—the life of the human race. A glimpse of the present is meaningless without a picture of the past and vision of the future. To live intelligently in the present it is necessary for one to perceive our age as the latest phase of a great social development. Human society is a living, growing thing, having its beginning somewhere in the darkness of antiquity, passing through the present, and pushing on into the mists of the future. It is a complex thing made up of millions of little ideas, interests, hopes, fancies, prejudices, superstitions, running along from year to year, side by side like strands in a rope. Any age, that of Caesar, of Luther, of Rousseau, of Gladstone, should be looked upon as a cross-section of this continuous growth. Our present-day political, social and religious institutions, our material resources, our tastes, ideals, strivings may all be regarded as various elements in the newest layer of social growth.

Nothing is more important, probably nothing else is so important to intelligent living, as this perspective of the conditions under which we live. It cannot fail to affect our every act and interest. The things about us are no longer static, but alive and growing: some are in the freshness of youth, some in the firmness of middle-age, some are tottering in their senility. All are part of an orderly progress that has been going on for all time. Such a viewpoint saves us from both

a vaunting radicalism and a stifling conservatism. With the picture of the whole development of society spread out before us we are not inclined to believe in an immediate approach of the millennium nor in the absolute permanency of the existing order.

It is the province of history alone to develop this perspective. No other study deals directly with the time relation. Geography, physics, biology, economics are all primarily concerned in discovering the relations existing between objects and forces at play in the existing order of things. History gives matters a place in time. This is its unique function. Since we have become aware that we are part of an ever-developing universe, it appears as important to know *when* an event happens as *how* it happens—the time relation is just as important as the space relation. History teachers should bear this fact in mind that the primary concern of their subject is *time*. It devolves upon them to develop in the students the historical attitude of mind which sees everything in the social world as elements in the age-long progress of humanity.

It is the opinion of the committee that the teachers of history in the secondary schools should center their

attention and effort upon the accomplishment of two things:

1. The presentation in clear outline and in rich color of the significant things of the past—leaders, crises, social states, movements—to serve the student as a store-house of experience to be drawn upon as an aid in forming social judgments in his every-day life.

2. The development of an historical point of view so that the student will not exaggerate the importance of his own age, but will appreciate the fact that his activity and the causes that he serves are but tiny transient incidents in the one great life going on through the ages.

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## Pictorial Documents as Illustrating American History

BY FRANK WEITENKAMPF, NEW YORK CITY.

In these days of the ever-present photograph and "movies" it seems hardly necessary to insist on the documentary value of pictures. Education by pictorial means is in the air. But this very easy acceptance on the part of the public, of the printed picture is a somewhat disquieting matter. If the pictorial print is a document, it should be critically examined as is the manuscript and printed document. Is it always, even by historians?

The speed of production of the newspaper may permit pictures to slip through without clear determination of origin. For instance, one well-known paper in 1913 pictured O. H. Perry in the Battle of Lake Erie "after Stuart's painting," but the painting was by W. H. Powell and was executed many years after the battle. And at the time of the Benjamin Franklin bicentenary there appeared in one or more papers a reproduction of "Franklin chez lui, à Philadelphie" illustrating Dr. Manasseh Cutler's letter describing Franklin with others, seated in his garden. A little investigation proved that the picture had been painted about 1876 by Henry Bacon and was therefore a purely imaginary depiction of something that might indeed have taken place. It was not the publication of the print that was wrong, of course, but the implied age of the picture. Perhaps such things might be passed over, if it were not for the fact that so large a portion of the public practically depends on the daily press for printed information, and has a re-

spectful attention for any printed statement in word or picture, made with sufficient emphasis.

But publishers of historical books seem also at times to accept for reproduction, with implicit faith, any pictorial material that has once before received the stamp of approval in the shape of publication. And that delightfully vague term "old print" is set under the illustration, whether the original is fifty years old or two hundred. It might as well refer to one of Alonzo Chappel's reconstructions of the late sixties as to a Peter Pelham mezzotint of the early eighteenth century. Parenthetically, let me say that Chappel really seems to have reconstructed with some conscientiousness. At all events, my lurking doubts as to the correctness of uniform detail in his drawing of the death of Col. Ellsworth were dispelled when I came across a photograph of the Zouave who shot Ellsworth's slayer, which quite agreed with Chappel's rendering.

One has but to look over even a partial list of the queries that come to a prints division, such as that of the New York public library, to realize that the demand for pictorial illustration is a widespread one. Here are a few of the things asked for in the field of American history: Saddles of Washington's day, Kit Carson's saddle, head-dress of an old lady in 1810, country girl of 1812, British caricatures on American subjects, log cabins, Conestoga wagon, country school house of 1840, advent of the American flag, inaugurations before Lincoln, clipper ships, early railway



trains, Dutch colonial dress, canal boat passenger travel, and, of course, portraits of various individuals and views of various places.

From a more or less large amount of pictorial material the inquirer generally makes his choice by a sort of rough-and-ready sifting. The librarian may, in the rush of business, give some help, raise the warning hand. Should an unwary writer be attracted, for example, by the quaintness of that series of eighteenth century prints issued at Augsburg for "peep-show" use, depicting revolutionary events in New York city (destruction of the king's statue, triumphal entry of the royal troops), he may be stopped from further action by being told that the things are pure and undiluted "fakes."

The contemporaneousness of a print does not necessarily imply correctness. During the Revolution, the magazines of the day contained a good number of plans, views, battle scenes, portraits of commanders. Various separate prints illustrating current events also saw the light. They represent the closest available approach to correctness, and at the worst are probably not generally as airy in their treatment of facts as was J. F. Renault in his "Surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown." Yet even those four famous old pictures of the engagements at Concord and Lexington, engraved by Amos Doolittle from drawings by Ralph Earle, were criticised by Edward Simmonds, the mural painter, who, having gone carefully over the ground, pointed out to me various errors in the placing of buildings in those quaint prints.

Nor does hoary age guarantee us against the "fake." It appears even in the early days of book-illustration. In Schedel's "Nuremberg Chronicle," issued in 1493, you will find impressions from the same wood-block doing duty, at various places, as portraits of quite different individuals, or the same view labeled, on different pages, with the name of different localities. If we agree with George E. Woodberry that "the representations were typical rather than individual" such euphemism is not applicable to products of a much later date in our own land. During the formative period of our republic<sup>1</sup> "events in our land attracted attention, and portraits were produced that bore more or less—often less—resemblance to the originals. Franklin could at least be drawn from the life by the French—*vide* Duplessis and Cochin—and his face became familiar throughout the land whose inhabitants he had quite captured by his personality. But by the time Cochin's impression of him had reached Germany, it could hardly be recognized in the traduction of J. C. Haid's mezzotint, with rather a Teutonic aspect, as we may find it also in some portraits of Washington, or, later, of Lincoln. Not only were some foreign artists influenced by the types around them, but the demand for portraiture occasionally resulted in "truly exhaustive efforts of the artist's imagination," as W. L. Andrews characterizes John Michael Probst's conceptions of Charles Lee and

Putnam. Such fabrications have their notes of gaiety: so in a sober, quite Hollandish, bearded "Wm. Penn," in a book of travels in the United States, published in Utrecht in the seventeenth century, or in Chapman's bust, in stipple, of Washington, with side whiskers and a naval chapeau, drawn by Captain R. K. Porter, R. N.

"But the imaginary portrait—call it 'fake,' if you will—was not unknown in those days in our own land, either. The origin of Revere's Col. Benjamin Church (1772) is quite evident when you see it side by side with the portrait of C. Churchill from Smollett's 'History of England,' (1758-65). His full-length of King Philip, as Andrews points out, has not even that basis of fact, but is 'evolved entirely from his own consciousness.' The full-length Washington (possibly by John Norman, thinks C. H. Hart), 'in Roman dress as ordered by Congress for the monument to be erected in Philadelphia,' was transformed from that of Sir William de la More, in full coat of mail. One can continue this paragraph on un-authenticity to much later dates, to include, for instance, the Franklin bust portrait, of the Wilson type, engraved by F. Halpin, which, despite its evidently eighteenth century garb, did duty as a picture of Roger Williams. Necessity of quick production gave rise to the expedient of taking out the head on an already engraved plate and substituting another. Stauffer has pointed out that the James Madison signed *Bona del Parte sculp* is Akin's portrait of Benjamin Rush, with head and signature changed. And A. H. Ritchie's full-length portrait of Abraham Lincoln was originally one of Calhoun.

"Still quicker results could be attained by changing only the name of the personage; so Michele Pekenino, an engraver reconstructed by Stauffer, produced a portrait of Bolivar by changing the lettering on his head of A. B. Durand. And the portrait of *James Arlington Bennet, LL.D., at 30*, by Story and Atwood after J. Neagle, appears also with Bennet's name replaced by that of Aesop. A collector with an eye for humor has united in one frame five eighteenth century woodcuts, each representing the profile of a gentleman in a three-cornered hat. The only appreciable difference is in the names, which are: Richard Howel, Samuel Adams, Henry Lee, Bradley (Governor of Rhode Island) and Columbus. But 'a portrait's a portrait, although there's nothing in it,' and the enterprising publisher runs in a portrait of 'Hendryk' Hudson, or some equally doubtful one, adding the glamor of research among pictorial documents by using the impressive caption 'from an old print,' a description used impartially for one two centuries old, or only fifty years." And as an early example of newspaper enterprise one may cite that one-issue "blanket-sheet" brought out during the Mexican war, "Brother Jonathan, Great Pictorial Battle Sheet" (New York, 1847). This offered an amusing mixture of bona-fide portraits of American generals and French and other foreign cuts, appropriated to do duty as delineations of Mexican life. These pictures of French cuirassiers and Italian brigands posing as

<sup>1</sup> "American Graphic Art," by F. Weitenkamp, New York, 1912.

Mexican soldiers and civilians constitute as pretty an example as one could find of the bare-faced "fake." In 1918 Mr. Charles Henry Hart read before the American Historical Association a paper on "Frauds in Historical Portraiture," dealing largely with American portraits. No more is necessary than a reference to that, since it is in print.

Before the days of the camera, facts passed through the alembic of the personal viewpoint of the artist, with possible change and distortion. And the camera? That dumb, mechanical, faithful agent reproduces impartially whatever is set before it, both truth and "fake," and clever humanity sees to it that it shall be the latter, if that be more convenient. The photograph's statements are affected, like those of humanity, by point of view.

After all, however, the occasional fault no more impairs the utility of the print than the possibility of error, or the bias or confused judgment of the "eye-witness" lessens the usefulness of printed or manuscript sources. The "personal equation" cannot be absolutely eliminated from written, printed or pictured testimony. Even the printing of a government document does not necessarily mean the telling of the whole truth.

Views, whether photographic or painted or drawn on the spot by an artist, will generally be accepted as fairly trustworthy representations. On the other hand, pictures of occurrences, battles, mob attacks, sessions of representative bodies, are practically never produced synchronously with the event. There is the photograph, of course, but that cannot, for obvious reasons, give a battle, for instance, at close hand. It may sometimes reproduce a small slice of an event, and then becomes at best anecdotal history. The painting or drawing of a battle or other affair, even if the artist was present, can at best give but his impression. In other words, it is the artist's privilege, just as it has been of certain historians of a vivid style, to put the breath of life into a recital. John Trumbull, himself a participant in the Revolution, left a dramatic representation of the Battle of Bunker Hill. It is an open question whether he expressed the spirit of the scene any more truly than did Howard Pyle a hundred years later in his two illustrations, one showing the British grenadiers doggedly advancing up the hill in close formation, the other depicting Bostonians watching the battle from their house-tops. The New York public library owns a large scrapbook of drawings executed on the front, during the Civil War, by Frank Leslie's artists. There you may find a note such as "men with oilcloth, very wet and muddy, . . . make them take better aim." This sketch was redrawn, then, in New York, after which it was engraved on wood. So that two draughtsmen and an engraver stood between you and the facts. Still, it is the closest eye-witness account, in pictorial form to be had.

Of course if the artist's impressions are based on insufficient knowledge, the results are disconcerting. For instance, some years ago a newspaper letter called

attentions to illustrations showing Wolfe reading Gray's elegy on the way to Quebec (while there was no moon that night to give light to read by), Montgomery's army on Lake Champlain in full uniform with bayonets (while there were few uniforms and bayonets in 1775), Prescott at Bunker Hill in full regimentals (while it is recorded that he was in civilian garb, including a long seer-sucker coat), Sergeant Jasper at Fort Moultrie picking up the Stars and Stripes (while his flag was that of South Carolina).

When we come to portraits, it is, as with views, a matter of the photograph or painting or drawing from the actual object—the portrait from life. And while in an engraving after such a portrait we are given, indeed, nature doubly translated, first into the impression of the painter and then into the traduction of the engraver, yet we get as close to the original as possible. There is, too, the possibility of comparing various engravings of a subject with the original or a photograph thereof, and with each other, so as to avoid the use of a copy or a copy of a copy, for one engraver often copied another. Of course a painted portrait shows the subject seen through the eyes—and the mental attitude—of the painter. And the photograph? Has that changed all? Not quite. That reproduces the momentary aspect, the mental and physical pose. The artist, on the other hand, if he be one of real power, can conceivably work on the synthetic plan, giving us a résumé, a reflection of the general character of the sitter. The good likeness frequently carries conviction, and is not that after all a determining matter in much testimony honestly given? Sigmund Jacob Apin, indeed, in his little books on the collecting of portraits (Nuremberg 1726) met objections regarding the likeness of a portrait by asking, "but *may* it not be like?"

It is interesting, too, to note how research in this specialty of historical illustration may develop expert knowledge. For instance, the subject of uniforms of the American Revolution has been worked up by an amateur enthusiast, and by H. A. Ogden, the illustrator, down to the very buttons and wristbands, while a "sub" specialty has been developed, that of Pennsylvania regiments during the same war, by the artist J. L. G. Ferris.

It really seems that the attitude has changed for the better. In our country the most noteworthy attempts at critical presentation of illustrations are probably Winsor's "Narrative and Critical History" (1884-89), Woodrow Wilson's "History of the American People" (1902), and Avery's unfinished "History of the United States" (1904-10). In the last two the list of illustrations is illuminating and aims to fix as nearly as possible the correctness of a given print, stating doubts frankly where they exist, as for instance in the case of the portrait of Lasalle.

Mr. I. N. Phelps Stokes, in a recent address before the Grolier Club, New York, on New York city views, showed an original drawing of the city, possibly done in 1642, of the authenticity of which he

was not yet quite convinced. The interesting point about it was that, while it came to light seven or eight years ago, it shows two windmills in New Amsterdam. Now, said he, it was only through a photograph of the Manatus map (long known as the "Vingboons Survey," owned by Henry Harisse), taken a year or so ago, that it was found that there existed two windmills in the settlement instead of one. That is an example of studying views with the help of contemporary records.

The movement for historical teaching with the aid of illustrations has been voiced in recent years, for example in the *HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE*. The intention is, of course, to put the pupil in accord with the spirit of the period which he is studying, and contemporary pictures seem to be selected as much as possible. At the time of this writing the Metropolitan Museum, of New York, has in preparation handbooks intended to show the teachers of history in the public schools what there is in the museum to help them illustrate their teaching. Obviously it is not only paintings, personal impressions of events and personages, which come into play here, but also objects of applied and decorative art, reflecting tastes and aspirations of given peoples and periods. In the little volume "Art museums and schools," the chapters by G. Stanley Hall on museums and teachers of history, and O. S. Tonks on museums and teachers of the classics, deal particularly with this matter.

All works of art directly or indirectly form records of the activity of mankind at various times, in various surroundings, under various conditions. That fact is obvious, at least in its superficial manifestations; references to it stare us in the face everywhere in the literature of art. The fact is graphically illustrated by art throughout the ages. In our own country, take as a simple illustration the products of certain painters of the middle of the last century—W. S. Mount, F. W. Edmonds, R. Caton Woodville, W. Ranney, Bingham. They painted the pioneers and trappers of the West, the flatboatmen of the Ohio, the Long Island farmer driving a horse trade, whittling, or listening to "Old Dan Tucker" scraped by the local fiddler. So they left records of costume and customs and mental viewpoint.

Less concerned, often, on the whole, with individual happenings than with the broader aspect, the more general trend, of occurrences, is the art of caricature. Some years ago there was exhibited in New York city a collection of about two hundred caricatures relating to the American Revolution. And a sub-division of this specialty is dealt with in R. T. Haines Halsey's "The Boston Port Bill as pictured by a contemporary London cartoonist" (Grolier Club, 1904). The Jacksonian period and the Civil War add their quotas to the pictorial comment on happenings offered by the comic art. The interest and value of the often searching sidelight which both political and social caricatures throw on our historic periods have been shown by the publication of numerous books dealing with individual persons, countries or periods in caricature. I might

add that in the case of the social history of our own land I dipped lightly into the subject in two articles for the "Critic" for August and September, 1905, which nevertheless necessitated the examination of every picture in every comic paper of any note that was procurable, published for fifty years after 1835.

Finally, apart from the more or less obvious illustration of outer manifestations—costume, customs, racial characteristics—which the printed picture holds for us, there is the deeper significance of art. The fact is that all art really worth while is an expression of its time and land. Paul Clemen even says that art "is the finest flower of the culture of a people; without a knowledge of the same the life of a people cannot be understood." And he is simply one in a long list of authors who have borne witness to this, including Taine, R. Eucken, Percy Gardner, W. M. Flinders Petrie, B. Handcke and Clive Bell (who asserts that "the idea is intolerable to scientific historians"). Characteristic instances of art as a manifestation of its time and place are not hard to find. The Gothic Cathedral, the Japanese color print, the Greek statue, the Persian miniature, British mezzotints, Chinese ceramics—or, in our own land, the "Hudson River School" of painting, civic art, colonial furniture, the sky-scraper, the bungalow—all these and so many others, are expressions of racial and national viewpoint and tendency.

In that point of view lie perhaps the deepest meaning, the richest possibilities, of art as an aid in the interpretation of history.

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In the July volume of the "Hibbert Journal," "A Discourse on War," by the late Stopford A. Brooke, will appeal to historians because of its interpretation of the general spirit of war. In the same volume Harold Begbie has a most interesting comparison of religious conditions in Russia and England in his "Spiritual Alliance of Russia and England," and in this comparison Russia certainly does not suffer.

Dr. William Z. Ripley, professor of political economy in Harvard University, and one of the highest authorities on transportation problems in the United States, discusses "The Railroad Eight Hour Law" in the October "Review of Reviews." Dr. Ripley's article is by far the sanest and most non-partisan treatment of the Adamson Law which has yet appeared.

Albert B. Faust has an interesting article on "Swiss Emigration to the American Colonies in the Eighteenth Century" in "The American Historical Review" for October. The Swiss settlements were made in Pennsylvania and the Carolinas, he says, and flourished in spite of the hardships, obstructions, social ostracism and deprivation of rights and privileges imposed by the home government.

In the "London Quarterly Review" for July, St. Nihal Singh pays a high tribute to the retiring Viceroy of India in his article on "Lord Hardinge's Indian Administration." The success of Lord Hardinge, he claims, was due to his sympathy with Indian aspirations; his limitations, to his inability to effect military reform, and the great merit of his service the advance made in education.

## Some Aspects of Supervised Study in History

BY ROBERT D. ARMSTRONG, HISTORY DEPARTMENT, HIGH SCHOOL, HAMMOND, IND.

The fundamental problem of the high school student in beginning the study of history is how to study effectively. It is entirely within the truth to say that the vast majority of students do not know how, and ordinarily are not aware that the problem of how to study is fundamental. Unless they learn this important lesson early in the course, they are not likely to learn much else. The discouragement which comes with the failure to secure results will kill their interest in history, make their work a burden instead of a pleasure, and in many cases cause them to drop out of school. It is true that many students learn in the long run to study effectively unaided. But at best the learning will be a slow and wasteful process, and the vast majority never will acquire economical and effective study habits without assistance from the teacher.

The fundamental problem of every teacher, then, is to teach how to study. It is hard for one to understand what is going on in the mind of another, especially if the other is many years younger than oneself, and immature in his ways of thinking. Still harder is it if he is commencing the study of a subject in which one has had years of training. This is the problem that confronts the teacher, however, and unless he can find out how the minds of his boys and girls work, and how he can make them work better, he fails largely in his efforts to teach them, for of necessity his presentation and method must be based on that knowledge.

The function of the high school is not so much to instruct as to educate. The teacher must think of himself not as an instructor or imparter of information, but as a guide, to direct the student's efforts at self-help. The function of the teacher is to draw out the powers of the student, and to train him to exercise them in such a way as to acquire knowledge and gain power. This presupposes a knowledge of what those powers are to begin with, and how they may best be drawn out. Accordingly we must not limit our point of contact with the student to the recitation, but must develop a point of contact with his study. We must watch him at work, observe wherein he is weak, and train him in economical and effective habits of study.

Unsupervised study is inefficient study. As to what form the supervision shall take, there is room for difference of opinion. Local conditions may make impracticable many plans otherwise ideal. As to the need for supervising and controlling the study methods of the student, however, there is no room for difference of opinion. In the grades, the student is under almost constant supervision, both in study and in recitation. But when he enters the high school, although confronted with new types of subject matter, new conditions, new teachers, and other conditions which bewilder and confuse him, it is considered

time to remove the control, and leave him to his own devices in the study period.

It is true that he is usually assigned to study hall or assembly periods, where he is controlled in some measure, but this control, by the very nature of the case, can hardly extend beyond preventing noise and disorder. The teacher in charge of the study hall is not in position to give any effective assistance or instruction in study methods to students from many different classes and teachers. Students who are making conspicuous failures in their work are often assisted by the teacher at a conference period. But such assistance is necessarily incomplete and intermittent, for no teacher, after a hard day's work, can be expected to do as much of this as is really necessary or advisable. If properly done, moreover, it results in much duplication of work, since the same help is imparted individually or to a small group which could be imparted collectively to a whole class.

So, on the whole, the student is left to sink or swim, and many times he sinks. Any other course is practically impossible under the traditional system, since the administrative system as at present organized, is not adapted to any thoroughgoing supervision of study. Really effective work of this kind, necessitates a supervised study period, in which each teacher devotes some time each day to supervising study of his pupils and instructing them in better methods of work. In recent years many high schools have adopted administrative systems and programs which provide specifically for supervised study periods. The purpose of this paper is to present some of the results of such a system in the Hammond High School, and some of the lessons which the writer has learned in supervising the study of history among first-year and second-year high school students.

Practically all high schools give double periods to all science courses. It has been recognized that the necessities of the laboratory method make necessary supervision of most of the study of the student in science. It would seem that the student in historical science needs double periods as much as the student of natural science. The laboratory method of study is coming to have a larger place in the course every year, and the data of historical science are admittedly more complex and difficult to deal with. It would be hard to phrase an argument for double periods in natural science that would not apply with equal force to double periods for historical science.

The best kind of supervision, as Blaine said of protection, is the kind that eliminates the necessity for itself. There is a limit to the usefulness of supervision, a point at which it begins to hamper the development of the student rather than to assist it. Roughly speaking this point may be fixed at the end of the second year in high school. In general all freshman and sophomore courses should be supervised,

and all junior and senior courses unsupervised. We do not wish our infant industry to remain permanently in swaddling clothes. By the end of the second year, the student should have acquired study habits which will make further supervision useless, a waste of time for the teacher and a temptation to undue dependence on the part of the student.

Stating the question simply from the administrative point of view, certain courses may be designated as supervised courses and others as unsupervised courses. Most of the former will be those which normally will be taken by freshmen and sophomores, and most of the latter will be those which normally will be taken by juniors and seniors. If the supervised courses be given double periods, the system is flexible and no confusion will result, since the double periods articulate with the ordinary eight period daily program. The courses which freshmen and sophomores will normally take may be so scheduled that they need have no conflicts, and will spend the entire school day in school, with alternate periods of study and recitation. For the normal student, this program will mean little or no home study, which is a consummation devoutly to be wished.

An objection that will occur to the administrator is that such a program would be too costly, since many teachers would be able to handle only four classes a day, and very few more than five. Waiving the obvious consideration that four or five classes a day is enough, it can be said that this larger initial unit cost is largely compensated by the smaller rate of elimination, the lower percentage of repeaters, and the elimination of study halls for freshmen and sophomores. We found that the unit cost amounted to about the same under supervised study as without it. Moreover, granting that supervised study costs more, it is clear that it accomplishes more.

The teacher may object that such a system would take an undue amount of his time, even with fewer classes. The teacher may feel so before trying the system, but would change his attitude after working under it. After the first year of supervised study, the teachers of the Hammond High School were unanimous in desiring to retain the system. Though the system did demand much time, it was felt that the system solved so many problems that it was time well spent.

An administrative system that provides for a supervised study period directly following the recitation results in abolishing the arbitrary distinction between recitation and study. The teacher comes to regard the double period as a laboratory period in which the students work at history, and the teacher supervises and assists them, keeping in the background and leaving the students to themselves as much as the situation will permit. The recitation still remains, but its character is radically changed. Quizzing for the purpose of determining whether the students have studied largely disappears, because the teacher is in constant and intimate touch with their study, and knows what has been accomplished, without wasting the time of all concerned by going over ground already covered. The recitation becomes simply group study,

in which certain kinds of study are carried on which can best be done by the whole group thinking and working together. It can be devoted to material that is new, and to constructive group thinking. It becomes more real and vital, and really contributes to the progress of the group.

In the ordinary class group, there are students of widely different capacity. The supervised study period gives greater opportunity for the teacher to find out whether good work is due to long and patient application, or to exceptional ability and little actual study. It affords the teacher an opportunity to adjust the amount of work assigned and the difficulty of the tasks to the capacity of the student. It is a serious injustice to require the same objective standard of achievement from all students alike, for on the one hand it makes the work unduly hard for the lower half of the class, and on the other, makes so little demand on the brighter students, that they are able to perform their tasks with little effort, and do not grow in power. This condition is responsible for the well-founded criticism that our public schools tend to reduce all students to a dead level of achievement. Varying standards of work, both of quality and of quantity, must be set up. The supervised study period gives the teacher an opportunity to get at the facts upon which these standards must be based, and to put them into effect. A minimum standard must be adopted for the whole group and for the students who find this standard too easy to attain, additional tasks must be assigned.

In practise the minimum requirement usually amounts to a thorough understanding of the text, and an irreducible minimum of outside reading and notebook exercises. In order to fix a proper minimum standard, the teacher must consciously plan at the very outset the entire content of the course, and the division of that content into topic units for each day's work. He must decide what he expects all the students to get from each topic. This involves an outline of the topic, the assignment of notebook exercises, the formulation of questions calling for reflective thinking, and references to sources and secondary works. It will greatly facilitate fixing and maintaining such a standard, to put in the hands of each pupil mimeographed or printed copies of this syllabus,<sup>1</sup> as a sort of laboratory manual, or if this is impossible, to post in convenient places, sufficient copies to enable each student to make use of it in his study. Such definiteness on the part of the teacher encourages definiteness of aim and accomplishment on the part of the student. The economy and efficiency of so standardizing the minimum requirement are apparent. The student is put in possession of all the tools necessary for his study; it remains only for him to use them intelligently. The teacher's relation to the latter problem is the problem of supervising his study, his use of the tools.

<sup>1</sup> The writer's term syllabus for a semester course in ancient history and a semester course in medieval history is to be published by Atkinson Mentzer & Co., of Chicago, during the winter. It follows the form suggested above.

The exceptional student can be required to do more reading, bear larger burdens in the recitation, and perform more notebook tasks. He can also be assigned to pursue independent investigations of his own along lines in which he is particularly interested. The amount and character of such additional work should be adjusted by the teacher to each individual case.

The problem attitude should be fundamental in history study. The subject matter upon which the mind of the student is at work, may be treated as presenting a series of problems, which call for essentially the same kind of attack as algebra problems or chemistry experiments. The various forms of problems that occur in history study may be classified as follows:

- I. The study of secondary work, including the text, which involves:
  - A. Analysis.
  - B. Retention.
  - C. Reasoning—about the nature and importance of facts and their relation to each other.
- II. The study of source extracts, which involves:
  - A. Analysis.
  - B. Retention.
  - C. Comparison.
  - D. Reasoning—inductive and deductive—building up of facts.
- III. Notebook exercises (maps, themes, outlines) the DOING OF OBJECTIVE TASKS which necessitates study as above and is the APPLICATION of its results.

In supervising the student's attack on these various problems, there are three problems:

1. How to motivate the study.
2. How the student should study.
3. How the teacher should teach the student to study.

The first is the problem of the teacher in making the assignment; the second is the student's own problem of method, which the teacher should solve for him in advance; the third is the problem of the technique of the supervised study period.

The first essential to effective study is to arouse a mental state which finds its logical expression in active and purposeful effort. This involves arousing interest and curiosity. The pupil should be made to feel that there is a real problem to be solved, and that it is a problem that he would like to solve. If the student feels that the assignment is simply part of the daily grind, his performance is apt to be lifeless and perfunctory. If there is a real desire to find out some new facts that promise to be important, or to perform a task which he is satisfied will improve his knowledge and grasp of the subject, the study will be properly motivated. In this sense, the teacher is a sort of advertising agent for the problem assigned; he must feel enthusiasm for his article of trade, and must have the ability to transmit that enthusiasm to others. Care should be taken, however, not to indulge in any superficial and shallow displays of interest or enthusiasm, for the student sees through the mask. It is essential that the student be really made to see the im-

portance of the problem and the interest and value involved in it.

When we approach the problem of how the student should study, we are confronted with the fundamental fact of individual differences in ideational type. Many students must lay more emphasis in study on one kind of imagery than on another. One girl studies best by moving her lips, and creating kinesthetic images, another by consciously forming vivid mental pictures, another by forming verbal images, etc. The teacher must diagnose each case as it comes before him, and with a full understanding of the pupil's peculiar mental makeup, prescribe a method of study which best utilizes his peculiar imagery. This demands a careful examination of each student who appears to differ from the normal, with perhaps the use of some simple psychological tests, and a personal conference in which the pupil and the teacher together work out the study method adapted to his case. Thus, by reason of the supervision of study, the course is adapted to the student in degree of difficulty and in quantity, and his method of attack is adapted to his individual characteristics and abilities.

Perhaps 75 per cent. of the class, however, have a complex ideational type, and respond to various kinds of imagery in practically the same degree. In practise, therefore, the teacher should work out a normal study method, which is calculated to fit the mass of the class. It is impossible, in an article of this length, to discuss the possible variants from the normal, and the appropriate study methods for each. All that can be done here is to discuss the method of study which fits the normal student, and to leave the prescribing of study methods for the abnormal student to the individual case.

The writer's idea of the proper study methods for the normal student will be best presented by giving in full the study instructions which he hands out to his pupils. No claim is made that these instructions are perfect; in fact they have been revised many times in the course of the year, and will probably be revised many times again. These instructions have been the result of the inductive experience of the study period. It is not claimed that any particular student should follow all the suggestions given, merely that every student will find suggestions of value which he can apply with profit, and that most of the instructions, particularly those of a routine character, in which uniformity is desirable in itself, should be followed by all. These instructions follow:

#### HOW TO STUDY HISTORY.\*

The most important thing for history students to learn early in the course is "How to Study the Lesson Effectively" and "How to Perform Well the Tasks that the Teacher Assigns." If you do not learn these things well, you are not likely to learn much else. These directions are prepared to help you study effectively. If you will follow them conscientiously and carefully in the preparation of each day's lesson you will be richly repaid in the satisfaction that comes from doing things well.

\* These instructions, complete, are to be published as a part of each syllabus mentioned in note 1.



## I. HOW TO STUDY THE TEXT-BOOK:

A. In the first place, be sure that you understand the assignment and know just exactly what the teacher wants done. If you are in doubt on any point, ask the teacher to explain more definitely what is required.

B. Review the main points of the lessons that you have had, that are related to the subject of the new lesson. Five or ten minutes spent in a review of this sort will make it easier to master the new assignment.

C. Read over the assignment once to get the main ideas.

D. Look up the meaning and pronunciation of all new words and names.

E. Wherever any reference is made to any place (city, mountain range, river, country, etc.) look it up on the map and fix it in your memory so firmly that you can locate it without hesitation on the large map in the class-room.

F. Study the maps in the text-book, and try to estimate the importance of geographical facts in determining historical events. You cannot understand history without geography.

G. Underline neatly with pencil sentences or words that seem to you particularly important or helpful. Be careful, however, not to do too much of this, and be sure that you do it neatly.

H. Memorize all important names and dates.

I. In reading the text-book with the purpose of remembering what you read, you are confronted with two problems:

1. To understand thoroughly what you are reading.
2. To fix all those points in memory so that you can reproduce them.

You will be greatly helped in doing these things by making an outline of the assignment, for you must understand what the book means in order to make a good outline, and the act of writing it down fixes it in mind so that you can remember it better.

Usually each paragraph in your text-book has a topic summary in heavy type at the beginning of the paragraph, or in the margin. Read this. What does it mean? Then read the paragraph. What does each sentence mean? How does it add to the topic of the paragraph? Are there some points in the paragraph of more importance than others? If so, what is the relation between the important topics and the less important ones? Do the latter explain the former? Do they give you details of the former? Try to condense the meaning of each point into four or five well chosen words. Are there any points in the paragraph which do not belong under the topic summary of that paragraph? If you are sure that they do not, what topic summary would you write out to cover them? Do you understand the paragraph fully, the importance of each sentence and part of a sentence in it, and the relations that exist among the parts?

When you are sure that you understand the paragraph fully, write out an outline of it. Write down the main topic summary under a Roman numeral (I, II). Then write down the first main sub-topic under a capital letter (A). Under this sub-topic enter the details that explain it under Arabic numerals (1, 2, 3). Then pick out your second main sub-topic (B), and under it enter its sub-topics. Go through the whole paragraph in this way.

How is the paragraph which you have outlined related to the main topic of the lesson? How does it add to the development of that topic? Look up from your work and see if you can remember the points of the paragraph and give them in your own words. If alone, you may find it helpful to say them aloud. If working with a classmate, you can repeat them to him or her in the same way, and have him or her criticize your recitation, you in turn helping him or her. If working in the study room, go through them silently or moving your lips. If you cannot give the

points of the paragraph, study your outline and the paragraph until you can.

When you have done this to your satisfaction, pass on to the next paragraph, and study it in the same way. In what way is each paragraph related to the main topic, and to the paragraph which went before? What more do you know about the main topic after studying the paragraph than you did before? When you have outlined all the paragraphs, look up from your work and see if you can summarize the important points of the whole lesson in the same way as above. If you cannot, study your outline and the text-book again until you can.<sup>3</sup>

While this seems a great deal of trouble you will find that you can get your lesson more quickly and thoroughly by this method than without it. As you become more advanced in your work and become more experienced in study methods, you can gradually reduce the amount of writing and outline, if you go through the same process of thinking as if you were making an outline. In other words, you should always make an outline in your mind, even if you do not commit it to paper. Keep up the outlining, however, until you can get the teacher's permission to drop it. On very difficult lessons, you may find it useful to outline on paper, even after years of history study.

J. Study the pictures as carefully as the printed portion of your text-book. Many students make the mistake of simply looking at the pictures, and not studying them. One can learn just as much from the pictures as from the printed words. Close your eyes and try to see the events or persons or places of the lesson. Make a mental picture of the lesson. Try to imagine yourself as being in that place, or as doing the things of which the lesson tells. Try to make the lesson as real to your mind as if you had actually been living in those times, and had been an actor in great events.

K. Refer to the syllabus and look over the outline. Are there any points in that outline which are not in your own or in the text-book? If so, look in the list of suggested readings, and try to get information on that point from other books.

L. Refer to the questions in the syllabus and at the end of the chapter in your text-book. Try to answer each one of these, either in writing or in your mind, carefully considering all the facts. Make a list of other questions that occur to you in regard to the lesson, and bring them to class. These questions may be classified as follows:

1. The causes of an event or movement.
2. The results of an event or movement.
3. The importance of certain facts. (Why do we study them?)
4. The right or wrong of an action or an institution. (What would you have done?)
5. The moral character or mental greatness of men.
6. The motives or reasons for doing certain things, of men or of governments.
7. Comparisons of men, institutions, customs, nations, etc., with others you have studied.

Thinking about the lesson in this way will make the facts easier to remember. will make the lesson more interesting, and will make you a better thinker.

Remember that the test of your lesson preparation is

<sup>3</sup> An excellent work on the peculiar problems involved in the study of history is Professor Johnson's "Teaching of History," recently published. Professor Johnson's suggestions as to the method of studying the text-book are practically the same as those suggested above. It is fair to state, however, that these suggestions are the outcome of class-room experience, and were developed before the writer read Professor Johnson's book.



your ability to recite on a given topic, or on the whole of the lesson, giving all the important points under each topic, and making clear the importance of each, expressing your opinions of men and institutions, and answering the questions expressed above (in L) without any assistance from the teacher, either by prompting or by asking questions. If you can do that, you have prepared your lesson well.

## II. READING IN OTHER BOOKS:

Your text-book does not contain all the material that you should study in order to get a proper understanding of your work. Only the most important things are in the text-book. Often your text-book states a fact in so general a way and so briefly that you cannot understand it without reading more about it in some other work. The text-book contains only the viewpoint of one man; to understand history properly you should get the viewpoint of several authors, and also read from the original sources and documents.

There are two kinds of books to which you will be referred: Source books, which contain documents or sources from which we have gained important knowledge or which are interesting as illustrations of statements made in your text-book, and secondary works, which are books like your text-book, but usually more detailed and complete. All secondary works are based on a study of sources or documents, some of which are contained in the source books. In no good secondary work will you find a statement which the author could not prove by reference to original sources. It is important to distinguish between these two kinds of books, for they must be studied in different ways.

A. Source books. (Before reading this section read and study carefully the section on "How We Know About the Past.")<sup>4</sup> Source books are collections of some of the most important and helpful written documents. All the operations of external criticism have been performed with these documents; they have been restored and read. It remains only to interpret them, and to ascertain from them the facts of which they are the traces left to us.

In studying sources as supplementary reading, apply to them all the tests of internal or higher criticism, and read all the sources that you can find on your point with a view to comparing them and drawing conclusions from them. Follow these directions:

1. Find out what you can about the author. In most source books, a paragraph or two at the beginning of each selection or in the back of the book gives this information. You can also learn much about the author while reading the document, just as you can often learn the character of a man by hearing him speak or reading his letters.

2. Determine whether the document is an official record, an account by an eye-witness, or an account written by one who got his information from others.

3. Study the document carefully to get what it means. Usually it will be necessary to outline the document just as you would outline your text-book. Follow other directions in the section on "How to Study the Text-book" as to new words, use of maps, etc.

4. Apply the tests for good faith and accuracy. Consider each statement of the document separately, and ask if there is any reason to doubt the accuracy or truthfulness of the statement. Ask all the questions given in the section on "How We Know About the Past."

5. Find any other documents that you can in the same or other source books, that bear on the same point. If unable to do so, ask the teacher's help in finding them. Study them in the same way as you have studied the first one.

6. Studying all the documents that you have read and criticized, and applying to them the principles given at the last of the section on "How We Know About the Past," come to a decision as to what facts are proved, and what facts are not proved or are doubtful. Be sure that for each one you can quote from the documents definite statements as to these facts. Write these in your notebooks, together with your reasons for considering them proved or doubtful, and the proper quotations from the documents themselves.

7. Your permanent notebook should have a section in which you can put the results of your source studies. Each study should be recorded in this notebook. By checking this notebook record the teacher will know the amount and quality of your source work. Your notes should be in the following form:

- a. The topic on which you are studying.

- b. A description of all the documents studied, with the names of their authors, if known, and the name of the source book and pages on which it is to be found.

- c. A brief sketch of what you have found about the author.

- d. The outlines of each document or notes on each made in studying it to get its meaning.

- e. What you have found out by applying the tests for good faith and accuracy.

- f. All the information asked for in c, d and e, for each document you have studied in addition to the first one.

- g. The facts you consider proved, your reasons for considering them proved, and quotations from the sources to prove your statements.

- h. The facts you considered disproved or doubtful, with your reasons for considering them disproved.

B. Secondary works. The chief reason for reading in secondary works is to gain more information than your text-book contains. The chief purpose of studying source books is to understand how the historian works with documents. Since the purpose of studying secondary works is to gain more information, you should study them in much the same way as you study your text-book. In some cases you should make a careful outline of the selection. In other cases, where the information is not entirely new to you, it will be sufficient to note down point by point the new facts, or to note the points, if any, in which the author disagrees with the author of your text-book. There is a great deal of room for differences in ways of looking at the same facts. Where you find disagreement try to reach your own conclusion as to which is right, by further reading and thinking of your own.

On some readings which are interesting simply because they seem to make the lesson more real to you, you need take no notes at all. You must be the judge, ordinarily of how to study the selection and of how carefully to study it. Sometimes the teacher will assign definite readings to you or to the whole class, and specify the method of study. In general, a knowledge of what you have read, definite enough for you to give some new information of importance to the class in the recitation, will be evidence that you have studied the selection carefully enough.

Your permanent notebook should have a section for readings in secondary works. This section should contain a record of every reading you have made, as follows:

- a. Topic.

- b. Name of author, name of book, publisher, city and date of publication, and the pages read. (Robinson, James H., "The Development of Modern Europe." Ginn & Co., Boston, 1907, pp. 206-220.)

- c. Whatever notes, outlines, etc., you have made.

- d. Your opinion of the value of the reference and of the book.

- C. Reports to the class. In reading any selection in sec-

<sup>4</sup> Section V of the instructions contains a short summary of the operations of historical research.

ondary works, or in studying any sources, you should always keep in mind the class. You may be called upon by the teacher at any time to report to the class the reading you have done and what source investigations you have been making. The purpose of these reports is to introduce new and interesting material into the recitation, and to train you in expressing your knowledge fluently to others. Try to read and study selections that the class would be interested in hearing you report. Often you will be asked to prepare certain readings or source studies especially for the purpose of bringing them before the class.

### III. THE NOTEBOOK: \*

Notebooks are of two kinds, the study notebook which is to contain the outlines you make in studying the lesson, and the permanent notebook which is to contain:

1. Records of source studies.
2. Records of readings in secondary works.
3. Maps, assigned by the teacher.
4. Special outlines of importance, assigned by the teacher.
5. Themes on special topics, including the term report.

The first two have already been discussed. Both of these kinds of work should be kept in separate sections of the notebook. In another section of the notebook should come the maps, themes and outlines, in the order in which they are assigned by the teacher.

A. General directions: Perform every notebook assignment at home, while it is fresh in your mind. Use ink for everything. Aim for neatness and accuracy. The quality of your work will be judged largely by the quality of your notebook work.

As each assignment is made enter it in your table of contents. This table of contents should come first in your notebook, and should give the number of the exercise and the page of your notebook on which it will be found. Follow this form:

#### TABLE OF CONTENTS.

1. Map—Peoples of Western Asia	p. 1
2. Outline—Important Discoveries of the Prehistoric Period	p. 3
Etc., etc., etc.	

B. The Maps: When you are assigned an outline map to fill in with certain material that the teacher will assign, you should follow these instructions in order:

1. Using pencil, trace on the map the boundaries needed to make the map clear. Make the pencil marks very light.
2. When sure that the boundaries are accurate, trace them with pen and ink, and when dry, erase the pencil lines.
3. With dots in ink locate all important cities.
4. With printed letters in ink name all rivers, cities, countries, seas, islands, etc. Print the names of cities in small letters, thus—Paris. Print the names of rivers in small capitals, thus—RHINE RIVER. Print the names of countries in larger capitals. This will prevent confusion.
5. With colored crayon, color carefully each country, taking care:
  - a. To use a circular motion of the crayon.
  - b. To bear very lightly on the crayon.
  - c. Not to go too fast.
  - d. To get the color on smoothly.
  - e. Not to run over the boundaries.
  - f. Not to get the color on too thick.
6. With blue crayon, draw a narrow edging, about an eighth of an inch wide, just inside the borders of each body of water.
7. In some corner of the map where there is plenty of

room, make a key. In a square drawn with pen and ink, put a block of each color used, and after it print in SMALL CAPITALS the name of the country represented by that color.

8. In a conspicuous place on the map, where there is plenty of room, PRINT IN LARGE CAPITALS THE TITLE of the map, so that it is plain what the map is meant for.

C. The outlines: Frequently you will be assigned to make an outline of some event or movement or period. This outline should be made at once, while the topic is still fresh in your mind. You have already been instructed in the section on "How to Study the Text-book" how to make an outline. Apply the same principles to the making of these special outlines, picking out first the large topics, and then the sub-topics under each. Make these outlines as brief and compact as possible. This means that you must condense everything into as few words as possible to make your meaning clear. Following is an example of a good outline:

#### OUTLINE—THE FIRST CRUSADE.

##### I. Growth of the power of the Turks.

- A. The Turks were an Asiatic people related to the Huns.
- B. They had driven the Arabs out of the Holy Land.
- C. They had driven the Eastern Empire out of Asia Minor.

##### II. The Eastern Emperor asks the Pope for military aid.

- A. The fact that he asked the Pope rather than the Holy Roman Emperor shows that the Pope was the most important personage in all Europe.

##### III. The Council of Clermont, 1095 A.D.

- A. Called by the Pope.
- B. Composed largely of French nobles and clergy.
- C. The Council decides to send an armed expedition to the Holy Land for the recovery of the Holy Sepulchre.

##### IV. Causes of the Crusades.

- A. Desire for adventure.
- B. Religious enthusiasm.
- C. Desire for land.

Etc., etc., etc.

D. The themes: From time to time the teacher will assign themes to be written on certain subjects. The first thing to do is to read in secondary works and source books and gather material for your theme. Do not write anything until you understand properly the subject of your theme and until you have read at least one book besides your text-book. Do not introduce anything into the theme that does not bear directly on your subject. *Do not use the words of the book. Use your own.* Make your theme definite, accurate, original and brief. It is not the quantity of matter you write, but the quality, that makes a good theme.

At the very end of the theme give the names of the books you have consulted, thus:

Robinson, J. H., "Readings in European History," pp. 196-202.

Often these themes will take the form of letters, diaries and other writings of a personal character, written as if you were a participant in the events, or an actual eye-witness.

E. The term report: During the term you will write at least one long theme of from 1,200 to 1,500 words on some special topic, on which you are to read a great deal and find out all that you can. Work on this term report will begin about the end of the first six weeks. You may choose your own topic, after consultation with the teacher, either from the work already covered, or from work in the latter part of the term's work if you are more interested in that, and desire to read ahead. You are expected to read all that you can find on your topic, in at least three books, and to study in a scholarly way all the sources that bear on your topic.

\* The subject of notebook work is more fully discussed by the writer in the HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE for October, 1916.

As you read these books, take notes on all important points, noting down carefully the page on which your information was found. When you write up your report, you should write it from these notes, and refer to the books themselves as little as possible. Your final draft should contain footnotes, which will give the reader of your report the page and book which is your authority for every important statement you make. You should average at least two footnotes to the page. Often you can explain some point in detail much better by adding a footnote. Your footnotes should follow this form:

<sup>1</sup> Robinson's Readings, p. 202.

<sup>2</sup> The Teutonic Knights, referred to above, went to the shores of the Baltic Sea after the crusades were over, and warred against the heathen Slavs. Later the order came under the control of the Hohenzollern House, and its possessions were the nucleus of the Duchy of Prussia. Thatcher & Schwill, "Europe in the Middle Age," p. 335.

If maps would add to the clearness or interest of your report, the teacher will give you outline maps which you can fill in and use to illustrate your report.

At the end of your report, on a separate page, should come your bibliography, or list of books used. First give the name of the author, then the full name of the book, then the name of the publisher, then the city and date of publication. Then in a sentence or two give your opinion of the merits of the book and its usefulness to you in working up your report. Follow this form:

#### BIBLIOGRAPHY.

Oman, Charles. "A History of England." Henry Holt & Co., New York, 1898. I found Oman useful for the following points . . .

Thatcher, Oliver J., and Schwill, Ferdinand. "Europe in the Middle Age." Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1896. This work was useful to me for the following reasons.

From these instructions, it will sufficiently appear, I take it, what the writer's ideas of the proper methods of study for the mass of the class are. Further discussion would therefore be redundant, as the instructions are self-explanatory. It is apparent that the course has been largely standardized, both as to content, and as to method of attack. And yet as has been pointed out, it is sufficiently elastic, since the amount of work required is varied with the ability of the individual pupil concerned, and variations from the standard study methods are permitted to those who will benefit by using other methods. For the mass of the class, the standardization is of great advantage, for the pupil has before him in black and white practically everything that relates to the organization of the subject matter of the course, the character of the tasks assigned, and the proper methods for performing them. Where a variation from standard is permitted, it is always for cause, and much is gained over a system or lack of system, where there are no standards objectively fixed, except those which the students may fix themselves.

It remains to discuss the third problem, namely how to put these study methods into effect, how to get the students to study in the proper manner. The most important feature of supervised study is the technique of the study period. The teacher is the fundamental fact in any system of education; the administrative system exists only that he may do his work effectively.

The effectiveness of the supervised study period depends entirely upon the enthusiasm with which the teacher embraces his opportunity, and the technique which he develops for carrying it out. In the hands of a lukewarm and careless teacher the period may mean nothing; in the hands of an alert and enthusiastic teacher, it may mean everything.

There is an element of danger in supervised study, the danger, namely, that the teacher may use it to solve all the student's problems for him, thus deadening his initiative and retarding his mental growth. This danger makes it necessary that the teacher should clearly articulate his purposes and aims in the study period, and hew strictly to the line, resisting the temptation, which is bound to come, to help too much. It has been well said that the purpose of supervising study is not to level the mountain but to train capable mountain climbers; it is not to solve the problem for the student, but to show him how to solve it. The teacher having developed his ideas as to the proper methods of study for various types of subject matter and for various types of students, it is his function to teach those methods to the student, and then see to it that the student follows them.

The first step, as has been indicated, is to reduce the standard study method to a definite form, and to formulate it in an organized body of suggestions. Much time is saved by handing out at the beginning of the term printed or mimeographed sheets, containing whatever suggestions of the sort the teacher may desire to make. These should be ready for the first meeting of the class.

At the first meeting, an informal discussion should be held on the question of how to study the textbook. The sheets should be distributed and the various suggestions discussed. When the first textbook assignment is made, the teacher should conduct group study of the text, all of the students having before them the textbook and the instructions. An outline should be worked out by the group, in accordance with the instructions, and placed on the board. After the lesson has been worked through in this way, students can be asked to recite on topics, as a test. Then the opinion of the group should be asked as to what dates should be memorized, and what are the most important things to remember, etc. A beginning can be made on the questions for reflective thinking on the syllabus. In this way the class is introduced to the study problem inductively.

This group study should be discontinued as soon as possible, as soon, namely, as the principles are thoroughly grasped. It may be resorted to time after time during the term, when problems of a new sort, or problems presenting particular difficulty are before the class. The tendency is to abuse it, however, and such tendency should be carefully guarded against. After the first few days of the term, the students should be set to study the assignment individually. The teacher should go from desk to desk, making sure that the student understands the meaning of the suggestions and is applying them effectively. If he is not doing so, the teacher should state the requirement more clearly and set the student right. If a

question arises, which the teacher has reason to believe may be troubling most of the class, the attention of all may be called to the question, and the explanation made to the group.

What has been said applies, of course, only to the normal study method. If in his assistance of individuals, the teacher has reason to believe that the student is not benefitting by the methods that the rest of the class are using, he should make an appointment with that student, at which time an endeavor should be made to find out the difficulty, and if necessary to change the prescription.

As soon as the principles of study involved in studying the textbook are generally grasped, but not before, it is safe to take up the question of note-book exercises. Group study is hardly necessary in beginning work on this type of problem, and the pupil should be set to work individually, while the teacher goes from desk to desk suggesting and supervising.

The last form of problem which should be attempted is the study of sources. To take it up earlier is likely to lead to confusion and mental indigestion. The first assignment of source study should be introduced by a discussion of the principles of historical research, what documents are, what kinds of documents there are, how the historian uses them. This discussion, of course, must be on the intellectual level of the high school student, and must be as objective as possible. It is a help to include in the printed instructions a four or five page section on the subject of how we know about the past, to be used as a basis for the discussion.\*

Assignments in the study of sources should also be standardized. The teacher should arrange a series of ten or twelve carefully graded source exercises, ranging from questions of the utmost simplicity, to problems involving considerable examination, evaluation and comparison of documents, and the writing of considerable themes based on that study.

The steps in teaching how to study may then be summarized as follows: first, the discussion and study of the principles as embodied in the instructions; second, group study under the direction of the teacher, applying the instructions to a definite assignment; third, individual study under the close supervision of the teacher. These steps should be completed in the first month or six weeks of the term. From then on, the teacher, on principle, should leave the student alone as much as possible, supervising his study directly only on problems of especial difficulty, or when he is slumping and losing ground.

It would be a great mistake to suppose that the student gets no benefit from the supervised study period after this period of a month or six weeks. He studies history at a definite time and for a definite period of time each day. He has just come from the recitation, and is in the subject attitude of mind. All of the conditions, physical and otherwise, necessary to effective study, are controlled by the teacher. He

is surrounded by various special tools for history study, such as books, wall maps, pictures, etc. He is with students who are working on the same problems as himself. And it is possible for him at any time to get the assistance of the teacher when in the teacher's judgment it is necessary. In other words there are four advantages in a supervised study period, first, the assurance that the student studies his lesson at all; second, the opportunity to instruct him in proper methods of study; third, the assurance that he follows instructions; and fourth, the opportunity to control in his interest all the physical and psychical conditions, necessary to efficient study.

The Hammond High School is now in its second year of supervised study. The day is divided into six seventy-minute periods, of which at least thirty must be devoted to study. Every class in the school has its supervised study period. A change to the system of double periods for some classes, and single classes for others, along the lines outlined in the first part of this paper, has been under consideration, but has not yet been made.

The results have abundantly justified the system. The teachers are unanimous in approval of the system, and are strongly in favor of retaining it. It has resulted in fewer failures, more efficient work on the part of all students, and more satisfactory conditions for the teachers. It has solved the fundamental problem of the student, how to study, and the fundamental problem of the teacher, how to teach the student to study.

The College Entrance Examination Board has published a pamphlet prepared by the Readers in History for 1916, containing "specimen answers written by college candidates in history." The purpose of the pamphlet is to present to teachers an actual illustration of the methods of grading pursued by the Readers in History. Eight examination papers are reproduced, two for each of the four historical fields; one paper in each subject is selected from those grading about ninety, the other paper is selected from those grading about forty. Copies of the pamphlet can be obtained from the Board (431 West 117th Street, New York City) for 25 cents.

In "The Teaching of Oral English," by Miss Emma M. Bolenius (Philadelphia, J. B. Lippincott Co.), there are many suggestions of value to history teachers. In addition to the general emphasis upon the care in the use of English in recitation the book contains chapters upon "The Debate in English History," "A Mythological Symposium," "Oral Composition in History," "The History Club," and "Organizing a Government as a Class Exercise." Suggestions are made for easy methods of grading oral recitations and debates. The author believes that outside reference reading in history can be made of much practical value by requiring one minute or very brief reports upon it. She describes how a class was developed into a history club. In the club the class was organized with students as officers, and they discussed subjects to be found in the text-book and in the outside reading.

\* Such a section is included in the writer's instructions, but is not given here on account of lack of space. It will appear in the forthcoming syllabi.

# Construction for History in the Grades

BY MARY A. WHITNEY.

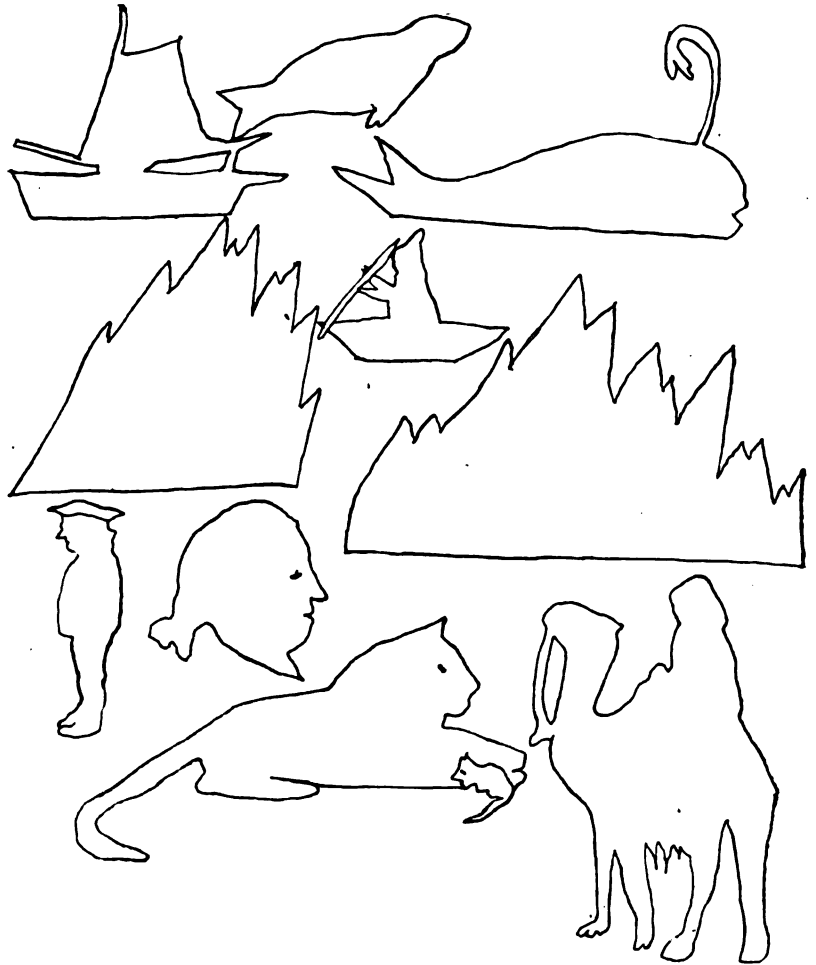
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The day is past when the study of history is said to be dull and uninteresting. Two things have wrought the miracle. First: we have learned to think history in terms of ourselves, of our surroundings, of our likes and dislikes, of our dress, of our commerce, labor and foreign relations. This has given the past a certain relation to the present which has vitalized it and made it real. Second: we have begun to reproduce it in concrete form. If the class is studying the Pilgrims, they make the Mayflower, and dress a doll as the Pilgrims dressed. If they are studying the Spanish Armada, they build in the sand pan the geographical situation, fold paper ships, and actually work out the attack. Thus every incident in history, with a possible few exceptions, can be visualized by some form of construction work. Some will be done by the teacher as illustrative work because too difficult for the pupils to do. Most of it, though, can be done by the pupils as self-expression.

## KINDS AND MATERIALS.

Construction work may be of the following kinds and materials: (1) Black-board illustration using free-hand drawing, stencils or "cut-out" pictures: (2) Paper folding for caps, boats, tables, chairs, tents, cradles, flags: (3) Paper cutting, posters or upright figures: (4) Weaving, raffia or reed, for baskets, and hammocks; woolens for rugs, mats, blankets; beads of wampum, headbands: (5) Color work, pen and ink, crayons, water colors, oils, dyes: (6) Wood chairs, tables, beds, wagons, and so forth. A sharp jack-knife and the crates for fruit, or cigar boxes can be used. Best of all is basswood one-eighth inch by six inches by any length, 5c. per foot at Tschudy Hard Wood Lumber Company, Kansas City, Mo.: (7) Cardboard for houses, wagons and so forth. Corrugated paper is excellent: (8) Clay; almost everything imaginable can be made in clay. An excellent quality can be obtained from the Western Stoneware Company, Monmouth, Ill., \$7.50 per barrel of 500 pounds. A good substitute is Plasticine. Clay when hard can be painted with water colors and baked in the ordinary

oven: (9) Sand table; a good one can be made by taking an old table, say three feet by five feet, and nailing around it boards five inches by one-half inch. Line it with white table oilcloth which covers the bottom and comes up over all the edges. In this use sand, salt, cotton or sawdust. For water, use plain window glass over blue paper. Iron pans eighteen inches by ten inches by two inches, painted blue inside, make good individual sand pans. Pasteboard



HISTORY PATTERNS.

suit boxes make good substitutes for a sand table. If none of these can be secured, spread papers on a table or on the floor and use sand, salt, or sawdust on it. In the sand table, more ideas can be developed and more problems worked out and more busy work taken care of than in any other kind of construction work: (10) Salt; besides using this alone in the sand table (Eskimo study), it may be used in a cooked form. Take one-half cup of salt, one-fourth cup corn starch; mix thoroughly; add one-fourth cup of cold water; stir until smooth; set on stove to cook, stirring constantly until it thickens into one lump. Take it off immediately and squeeze with hands as you would clay or wax. Mold into forms desired: (11) Pictures, discussed elsewhere: (12) Miscellaneous, toothpicks, clothespins, tissue

paper, crepe paper, tin foil, toy animals, animal crackers, boxes of all kinds, cotton, sparkle, beads, horse hair, glue paste, soda fountain straws, peanuts, walnuts, almonds, cloves, corn stalks, corn husks, wire, chicken feathers, adhesive tape, court plaster.

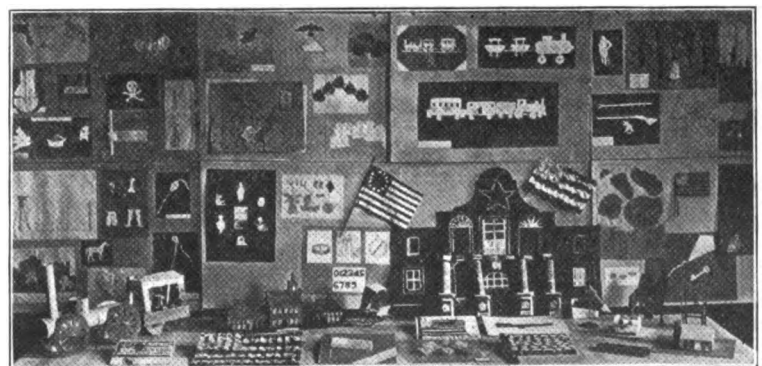
Things to make usually suggest themselves. The following are easy and suitable:

#### PRIMARY GRADES.

Indian life, the home: Moundbuilders, clay, sand, salt, dirt: Cliff dwellers, clay, coal, soap stone: Pueblos, clay, paper cutting: Plains Indians, wigwam, tepee, wickiup, hogan, lodge, long house, cloth, paper, chamois skin, kid gloves, sticks, wire, branches, corrugated paper, toothpicks: Eskimo igloo, seals, polar bears, dogs, sleds, cotton, clay, wood, leather, chamois skin: Indian life, childhood, papoose, cradle, hammock, dress: Indian life, customs, canoe, bow and arrow, snow shoe, moccasin, knife, war bonnet, shield, battle ax, tomahawk, war club, war shirt, peace pipe, pottery, totem pole, wampum, writing, blankets: Pilgrims, Mayflower, Plymouth Rock, cradle, fireplace, herb still, pewter platter, Indians and corn and fish, Thanksgiving dinner (turkey, loaf of bread, mashed potatoes, apples, pumpkin pie, plum pudding), map of Plymouth harbor: Washington, soldiers, hat, tent, gun, horse, tree, hatchet, house, mother and trunk and the sea, flower bed and George written in it, rows of soldiers and drum: Local history, log cabin, a fort, guns, prairie schooner, pony express: Memorial Day, the flag, a cannon, tents, wreath of flowers: Heroes of other times, Joseph's coat of many colors, Moses in the bulrushes and his smiting the rock, David and his sling, harp, Alexander's black horn, Bucephalus, Robert Bruce and his spider, Joan of Arc and her being burned at the stake: Columbus and his three ships: The flag, class make it of paper, in clay, paper folding and so forth.

#### FOURTH GRADE.

American explorers, Columbus in chains, De Soto buried in river, Magellan's route marked on a tennis ball, Drake and a Spanish ship as a prize: Virginia life, John Smith and his compass, first church, the pirates' flag, black with white skull and crossbones: New England life, Miles Standish's sword, John Winthrop's collar and hat, John Eliot's Bible, King Philip's war bonnet, New England fireplace, logs, andirons, Dutch oven, hour glass: Dutch, Quakers and others, Dutch houses, Dutch girl, Penn's Quaker dress, southern plantation, cotton, tobacco: New France, traps, doll dressed as a Jesuit priest: George Washington, as a surveyor, tripod, compass, raft for journey to Ohio: Benjamin Franklin, boy with loaves of bread, gets lightning, "Poor Richard's" almanac.



HISTORY CONSTRUCTION WORK.



## FIFTH GRADE.

Declaration of Independent, the bell: Benjamin Franklin, his aid from France: Daniel Boone, his tree, his stump and his Boonesboro: Mississippi river, flatboat: George Washington's inauguration clothes: Eli Whitney's cotton gin: Jefferson's purchase of Louisiana, map: First steamboat, made of paper and cardboard: First railroad, made of paper and cardboard: Erie Canal, map in sand pan: David Crocket, the Alamo: Spanish missions, a mission: Discovery of gold in California, spade, pick, pan.

## SIXTH GRADE.

Greeks, Parthenon, Greek ship, Alexander's empire: Romans, an augur, Coliseum, Roman road, aqueduct, Roman house, Lanip, book, forum: Vikings, dress, ship, map of



HISTORY PATTERNS.

voyages: Life in Middle Ages, a walled town, village fields (sand table), castle, moat, bridge, cathedral window: Crusades, Peter the Hermit, children, Venice, results: Discovery of western world, map showing Northmen's ranges, map showing Marco Polo's journeys: European rivalries, good Queen Bess, Raleigh's coat, Huguenots, Spain, Dutch country versus Duke of Alva and flooding of country (sand pan), Great Armada, ships in sand pan.

## SEVENTH GRADE.

Many different things can be done. Dress good dolls to represent some of the most famous characters studied. Make forms of colonial punishment, colonial church, town hall, colonial furniture, bed, hour glass, Dutch oven, herb still, splint bottom chair; maps to show growth of settlements and basis of colonial rivalries, sand pan development of New York harbor, Manhattan Island, Hudson river and patroon locations, sand pan work for Quebec; Bacon's Re-

bellion, white apron brigade; intercolonial wars, show various ways Indians used in destroying settlements, lead plates buried by French can be made in clay: Colonial transportation, corduroy road, wagons, coaches, canals: The Revolution, stamps, tea chest, map of Boston showing location of the long wharf, old state house, old north church, old south church, Paul Revere's house (sand table, blackboard or paper), Paul Revere's lantern. Almost all the great battles can be worked out in sand pan; mold Independence bell in clay; reproduce the Independence Hall at Philadelphia (cardboard), map showing territorial results of treaty of 1783.

## EIGHTH GRADE.

Ordinance of 1787, map of land claims, colored with crayons or water color, map of New York City and environs showing where Washington landed, when he was received officially, where he worshipped, where he was inaugurated, where he lived while the capital was at New York, also Wall street, Broadway and Trinity church (sand pan, blackboard or paper): Transportation, early roads, canals, express, Conestoga wagon, flatboats, pony express, steamboat, railroads: Evolution of crops, kinds, where, amount, value, maps locating each: Slavery, cotton field, slave quarters, southern home, cotton gin, slave driver, spread over new territory, Civil War, emancipation: The pioneer, frontier life, prairie schooner, forest clearings, log cabin, coon skin and rain barrel furnishings: Texas, map showing evolution of the state, different flags of the state: Civil War, forts, guns, torpedoes, soldier's dress, Lincoln's dress, hat, Mrs. Lincoln, the family, confederate flags: Reconstruction, Ku Klux dress, flag, notices, warnings, carpet-bag: Twentieth century, air craft, submarine, automobiles, modern schools, churches, evolution of woman's dress, evolution of ships for ocean travel.

All these are but suggestions as to what may be made to make plain to the eye what has been made plain to the intellect. To do all this one needs patterns of many things, and often one should give each child the pattern to use. This can be done on the hectograph. A good home-made one can be made as follows:

Dissolve four ounces gelatine in a pint of cold water. Add one pint of glycerine. Put on stove in double boiler. When it comes to a boil, pour it into a shallow granite pan 8 inches by 12 inches. Put the pan in level place to cool. If air bubbles form, take sheet of writing paper and pass edge over it. If too soft add more gelatine. If too hard, melt again. If surface is rough or discolored, place over a pan of warm water on stove, melt it and set it away to cool. Use coarse stub pen, hectograph ink and onion skin paper. See that every stroke of pen leaves a metallic luster when dry. Press it far down on surface of hectograph. Leave it there one or two minutes. When through with hectograph, wash it immediately with tepid water. Use fingers or soft sponge. Never leave surface dry.

Some of the best sources for patterns are: Something To Do (monthly), Bennett Publishing Company, 120 Boylston street, Boston, \$1.00; Busy Hands, Isabelle F. Bowker, A.



Flanagan, Chicago, 60c.; The Plan Book; With Scissors and Paste, Grace Goodridge, A. Flanagan, Chicago, 25c.; Normal Instructor, The Cut of Book, Ruth O. Dyer, A. Flanagan, Chicago, 50c.

The advantages of this construction work are: (1) Busy

work; (2) compels accurate knowledge first; (3) stimulates that activity; (4) provides a valuable means of individual initiative and self-expression; (5) gives a definiteness and a permanency to information and makes history a reality.



HISTORY PATTERNS.

### THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.

The Cincinnati meetings of the American Historical Association, held at the Hotel Sinton and the University of Cincinnati, December 26 to 30, 1916, were well attended, and proved fully as interesting as usual. About four hundred persons registered, among whom were many younger men and women, while quite a few of the older members were not in attendance. The local committee on arrangements succeeded admirably in entertaining the members. Most of the meetings were held in the headquarters hotel, thus keeping the visitors together and making it possible for them to enjoy those personal conferences and conversations which mean so much to all. One delightful day was spent at the University of Cincinnati, where the members were the guests of the university at luncheon. A reception was held on Thursday evening after the presidential addresses; a smoker for men was provided on Wednesday evening, and Mr. and Mrs. Charles P. Taft entertained at tea on Friday. The courtesies of the city's clubs and of the Ohio Historical Society were extended to the guests.

The Program Committee provided for conferences upon the various fields of history, including ancient history, English history, American history, European history, the history of China and Japan, and the history of Constantinople. The number of papers closely related to present-day affairs was greater than usual. At one evening session three papers dealt with historical phases of the present war; another session discussed the European peace congresses of the nineteenth century; at other meetings there were presented such topics as the recent history of China, the American government of the Philippines, and the influence of the war on the teaching of history. It is noteworthy, also, that a large proportion of the papers read were prepared by the younger members of the association.

Two conferences on the teaching of history were held. The first of these discussed the field and method of the elementary course in college history. There were seventeen speakers provided for this session representing various sections of the country and different types of institutions. The general sentiment was strongly in favor of European history for this course, although there was some divergence of views as to whether the entire field of European history should be covered or only medieval history or modern history; and one speaker endorsed English history for introductory work. Quite general agreement also seemed apparent that the lecture system should not be used for the introductory course if the finances of the institution permitted the splitting of classes into small groups under competent instructors. Some colleges reported the continuance of the lecture system, but always in conjunction with frequent conferences, recitations and quizzes. A number of the papers of this session will be printed in the *MAGAZINE* in the near future.

No such unity of subject appeared in the conference upon the teaching of history in secondary schools. Prof. C. E. Pray advocated the study of historical personalities; Mr. G. L. Swiggett urged more adequate training for business and the consular service; Prof. A. E. McKinley pointed out how largely the teaching of history in European schools had been affected by the war; Prof. S. B. Harding gave instances to show how German sympathizers in this country were trying to influence the text-book histories of the war. Prof. Harding, in the absence of Prof. W. S. Ferguson, reported upon the progress made by the Committee on History in Schools. He stated that the task of the committee is not to make a syllabus, but to select a series of topics, to point out what material may be omitted, what emphasized, and how the material shall be handled. The committee may also consider the place of history in the school curricu-

lum—that is, the possibility of giving social, functional value to it. The committee has not as yet decided to give any suggestions concerning the new two-year course in ancient, medieval and modern history, which has been adopted in many places, and recently was recommended by the Committee on Social Studies of the National Education Association.

Abundant evidence was shown from the program and from the action at the business meeting, that the association is taking a deeper interest in local and hereditary historical societies. Special conferences were devoted to hereditary historical societies, to local historical societies, and to the problems of the care and administration of archives. At the business meeting a report was adopted providing for a semi-independent organization of the Conference of Historical Societies. The conference, according to this report, should have its own officers and an independent income and treasury based upon the membership of the several societies joining the conference. The conference, with the assistance of the Newberry Library, of Chicago, will prepare a bibliography of historical societies for the years 1905-1915.

Many members attended the conference called to consider the advisability of publishing a journal devoted to the interests of European history. A strong sentiment in favor of the plan appeared. The chairman, Prof. George B. Adams, was authorized to appoint a committee to canvass the possibility of obtaining financial support for the journal. Later Prof. Adams appointed the following committee: Prof. D. C. Munro, chairman; Prof. James T. Shotwell, Prof. W. S. Ferguson, and Prof. E. R. Turner.

Another interesting conference was that upon the organization of a University Center for Higher Studies in Washington. A report, accompanied by a proposed constitution, was presented by a committee appointed at a preliminary conference held at Columbia University, May 13, 1916. The present plan is to lease a house or houses in Washington near the Library of Congress, and provide separate arrangements for men and women with private rooms and common living rooms. Ultimately it is hoped to provide for meals at the Center. Besides the values of community life and of mutual stimulus, it is hoped to appoint a permanent director who will aid inexperienced students in the effective use of original materials. If practicable, short courses by visiting professors will be arranged, and conferences provided with officials of the Government and other scholars residing in Washington. The expenses of the Center, estimated at \$7,000 for the first year, and \$4,000 for subsequent years, will be borne by contributing institutions who will control the Center, and by contributions from individuals.

The manifold activities of the association were well shown at the business meeting. Upon recommendation of the Council, the invitation of the University of Pennsylvania was accepted, and the next annual meeting set for Philadelphia; the recommendation of a registration fee of fifty cents for those attending the annual meeting was also adopted; the tenure of officers was voted to begin immediately after the election at the annual meeting, thus giving an opportunity for the new and old officers to meet and plan work for the year; the recommendations for the Conference of Historical Societies were accepted. The plan for a quarterly bulletin to be sent out in the intervals between the publication of the numbers of the "American Historical Review" was adopted, and a subscription was taken on the spot to finance the bulletin for the first year. The first number of the bulletin in each year, according to the plan, will be devoted to an account of the annual meeting, the lists of committees, etc.; the second number will contain the list of members or changes in membership; the third number will deal largely with personal news and notes of the

activities of the association; and the fourth issue will give the preliminary details of the program of the annual meeting.

Echoes of the reforming spirit of last year were noticed in the adoption, without debate, of the constitutional amendments proposed by the Committee of Nine; in the transfer of the ownership of the "American Historical Review" to the association; and in the immediate adoption of the report of the Committee on Finance concerning the methods of accounting in use by the association.

The following officers were chosen by ballot:

President, Worthington C. Ford; first vice-president, William Roscoe Thayer; second vice-president, Edward Channing; secretary, Waldo G. Leland; treasurer, Clarence W. Bowen; secretary of the Council, Evarts B. Greene; curator, A. Howard Clark; members of the Council, Eugene C. Barker, Guy Stanton Ford, Ulrich B. Phillips, Lucy M. Salmon, Samuel B. Harding, George M. Wrong, Henry E. Bourne, Charles Moore.

The Council announced the following committees for 1917:

**HISTORICAL MANUSCRIPTS COMMISSION**—Gaillard Hunt, chairman; M. M. Quaife, Justin H. Smith, Mrs. Amos G. Draper, D. R. Anderson, C. H. Lincoln.

**COMMITTEE ON THE JUSTIN WINSOR PRIZE**—Carl Russell Fish, chairman; Everett Kimball, E. S. Corwin, W. E. Dodd, Oswald G. Villard.

**COMMITTEE ON THE HERBERT BAXTER ADAMS PRIZE**—Laurence M. Larson, chairman; Sidney B. Fay, Louis J. Paetow, Ruth Putnam, R. H. Lord.

**PUBLIC ARCHIVES COMMISSION**—Victor Hugo Paltsits, chairman; Clarence W. Alvord, Solon J. Buck, John C. Fitzpatrick, George S. Godard, Thomas M. Owen, G. N. Fuller, Peter Guilday.

**COMMITTEE ON BIBLIOGRAPHY**—George M. Dutcher, chairman; William T. Laprade, Albert H. Lybyer, Wallace Notestein, William W. Rockwell, Augustus H. Shearer, William A. Slade, Bernard C. Steiner, H. E. Bolton.

**COMMITTEE ON PUBLICATIONS**—H. Barrett Learned, chairman; George M. Dutcher, Carl Russell Fish, Gaillard Hunt, J. Franklin Jameson, Laurence M. Larson, Victor Hugo Paltsits, W. G. Leland, E. B. Greene.

**GENERAL COMMITTEE**—William E. Lingelbach, chairman; Eloise Ellery, Irene T. Myers, Paul F. Peck, Royal B. Way, W. G. Leland, W. A. Morris, R. P. Brooks, R. H. George, P. J. Healy, C. R. Lingley, Eleanor Lord, J. M. McConnell, A. E. McKinley, F. E. Melvin, R. C. Ballard-Thruston, E. M. Huhne.

**COMMITTEE ON HISTORY IN SCHOOLS**—Henry Johnson, chairman; Victoria A. Adams, Henry E. Bourne, Henry L. Cannon, Oliver M. Dickerson, Herbert D. Foster, Samuel B. Harding, Robert A. Maurer, Nathaniel W. Stephenson, Philip Chase, D. C. Knowlton, R. M. Tryon, W. L. Westerman.

**CONFERENCE OF HISTORICAL SOCIETIES**—A. H. Shearer, secretary.

**ADVISORY BOARD OF THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE**—Fred M. Fling, James Sullivan, re-elected for three years, from January 1, 1917.

**EDITOR OF THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL REVIEW**—Carl Becker, to succeed himself for the term of six years, beginning January 1, 1917.

**COMMITTEE ON LOCAL ARRANGEMENTS, THIRTY-THIRD ANNUAL MEETING**—George W. Pepper, chairman; W. E. Lingelbach, vice-chairman; A. C. Howland, W. I. Hull, R. W. Kelsey, J. J. Van Nostrand, Jr., with power to add to their membership.

**COMMITTEE ON PROGRAM OF THE THIRTY-THIRD ANNUAL MEETING**—J. B. McMaster, chairman; H. V. Ames, vice-chairman; J. H. Breasted, W. L. Fleming, H. L. Gray, C. J. H. Hayes, A. E. McKinley, D. C. Munro.

## HISTORY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATIONS.

Additions to and corrections of the following list of associations are requested by the editor of the *MAGAZINE*:

Alabama History Teachers' Association—Secretary, D. G. Chase, Birmingham.

American Historical Association—Secretary, Waldo G. Leland, Washington, D. C.

California History Teachers' Association—Chairman, Clifford E. Lowell, Berkeley.

History Teachers' Association of Cincinnati, O.—Secretary, J. W. Ayres, High School, Madisonville, O.

History Section of Colorado Teachers' Association; Western Division, chairman, Mrs. K. A. Morrison, Gunnison; Southern Division, chairman, Max Morton, Pueblo; Eastern Division, chairman, Archibald Taylor, Longmont.

History Teachers' Association of Florida—President, Miss Caroline M. Brevard, Woman's College, Tallahassee; secretary, Miss E. M. Williams, Jacksonville.

Indiana History Teachers' Association—President, Beverley W. Bond, Jr., Purdue University, Lafayette, Ind.; secretary, D. H. Eilsenberry, Muncie, Ind.

Iowa Society of Social Science Teachers—President, Prof. G. B. Benjamin, State University of Iowa; secretary, Miss M. A. Hutchinson, West Des Moines High School.

Jasper County, Mo., History Association—Secretary, Miss Elizabeth Peiffer, Carthage, Mo.

Kleio Club of University of Missouri.

Association of History Teachers of Middle States and Maryland—President, Miss Jessie C. Evans, William Penn High School, Philadelphia; secretary, Prof. L. R. Schuyler, City College, New York City.

Mississippi Valley Historical Association, Teachers' Section—Chairman, A. O. Thomas, Lincoln, Neb.; secretary, Howard C. Hill, State Normal School, Milwaukee, Wis.

Missouri Association of Teachers of History and Government—Secretary, Jesse E. Wrench, Columbia, Mo.

Nebraska History Teachers' Association—Secretary, Julia M. Wort, Lincoln, Neb.

New England History Teachers' Association—President, Miss Margaret McGill, Classical High School, Newtonville, Mass.; secretary, Mr. Horace Kidger, 82 Madison Avenue, Newtonville, Mass.

New York City Conference—Chairman, Fred H. Paine, East District High School, Brooklyn; secretary-treasurer, Miss Florence E. Stryker, State Normal School, Montclair, N. J.

New York State History Teachers' Association—President, Edgar Dawson, Hunter College, New York City; secretary, R. Sherman Stowell, West High School, Rochester, N. Y.

History Teachers' Section of Association of High School Teachers of North Carolina—Chairman, Miss Catherine Albertson, Elizabeth City, N. C.

History, Civics and Social Science Section of North Dakota Educational Association—President, H. C. Fish, State Normal School, Minot; secretary, Miss Hazel Nielson, High School, Fargo.

Northwest Association of Teachers of History, Economics and Government—Secretary, Prof. L. T. Jackson, Pullman, Wash.

Ohio History Teachers' Association—Chairman, Wilbur H. Siebert, Ohio State University, Columbus; secretary, W. C. Harris, Ohio State University.

History Club of Ohio State University—Chairman, Florence E. Heyde, Columbus, O.

Political Science Club of students who have majored in history at Ohio State University.

Pacific Coast Branch of American Historical Association—Secretary, Prof. W. A. Morris, Berkeley, Cal.

Rhode Island History Teachers' Association—Secretary, A. Howard Williamson, Technical High School, Providence, R. I.

Oklahoma History Teachers' Association—President, Prof. R. G. Sears, State Normal School, Ada; secretary, Miss Jeanette Gordon, High School, Oklahoma City.

South Dakota History Teachers' Association—Secretary, Edwin Ott, Sioux Falls, S. D.

Tennessee History Teachers' Association—Secretary-treasurer, Max Souby, Murfreesboro, Tenn.

Texas History Teachers' Section of the State Teachers' Association—President, Frederic Duncalf, Austin, Texas; secretary, L. F. McKay, Temple, Texas.

Twin City History Teachers' Association—President, Miss Medora Jordan, The Leamington, Minneapolis; secretary, Miss L. M. Ickler, 648 Delaware Avenue, St. Paul, Minn.

Virginia History Teachers' Section of Virginia State Teachers' Association—President, Prof. J. M. Lear, Farmville; secretary, Miss Zadie H. Smith, High School, Portsmouth, Va.

Teachers' Historical Association of Western Pennsylvania—Secretary, Anna Ankrom, 1108 Franklin Avenue, Wilkesburg, Pa.

West Virginia History Teachers' Association—President, Charles E. Hedrick, Glenville; secretary, Dora Newman, of Fairmont.

Wisconsin History Teachers' Association—Chairman, A. C. Kingsford, Baraboo High School; secretary, A. H. Sanford, La Crosse Normal School.

## PERIODICAL LITERATURE

EDITED BY GERTRUDE BRAMLETTE RICHARDS, PH.D.

Elbert Francis Baldwin's article on "Francis Joseph's Long Reign" and T. Lothrop Stoddard's on "The New Emperor's Problems" in the January "Review of Reviews" are interesting and to the point. The former is a splendid resumé of the reign of the Emperor, emphasizing his strong hold on the affections of his people and the blunders of his foreign policy; the latter calls attention to the fact that the issue of the present war is literally one of life or death for Austria. However, the personality of the new Emperor is such that the future of Austria is not without hope.

"My Trip to the Front," by Mrs. W. K. Vanderbilt, in the January "Harper's," is an account of the author's visit last August to the lines in company with the Inquisitor General of the Field Service of the American Ambulances. The article is one of the most valuable that have yet appeared, as it gives a description, not only of Verdun, but of the actual fighting.

Harrison Rhodes' delightfully breezy article on "Washington the Cosmopolitan," in the same magazine, is full of interesting anecdotes of the National Capital.

Elmer Roberts' "America and Europe—Now and After the War," in the January "Scribner's," emphasizes the anxiety both belligerents and neutrals feel for the good opinion of the other. He also suggests that the fighting nations will not be as ruined economically as Americans seem to think, as their sources of effort have not remained inactive during the war.

"With Smuts in German East," by Cyril Campbell (January "Atlantic"), is a continuation of the author's account of the initial operations in the African campaign, which appeared in the August "Atlantic." It is a detailed and quite valuable narrative of the work of the great Afrikaner, the third member of the great Triumvirate which foresaw and strove for the foundation and construction of another great white nation.

Professor Albert Bushnell Hart's "See America First," in the "Outlook" for December 27, is admirably illustrated with views of the western mountains.

The editorial comments in the "New Republic" for December 20 on President Wilson's note to the belligerent Powers regarding terms of peace, are well worth one's reading as an exposition of our national policy.

Rear Admiral Bradley A. Fisher, generally recognized as the greatest naval authority on this side of the Atlantic, writes on "The Next Five Years of the Navy" in the "World's Work" for January. While criticizing the national laxness regarding an adequate navy, he also presents an admirable plan for recreation and reorganization of our naval power. The article is forcefully written and splendidly illustrated.

Professor Edwin J. Clapp, of New York University, has an excellent article on "The Adamson Law" in the "Yale Review" for January. He traces the beginnings of this law from January, 1913, when the eight-hour basic day was first demanded. The article is quite impartial in its presentation of disputed points and carefully analytic of the whole situation.

The Earl of Cromer's "Reflections on the War" and John Barrett's "Mexico" in the same magazine are also well worth reading.

The last issue of the "American Political Science Review" publishes an article on "The British Empire and Closer Union," by Professor Theodore H. Boggs, of the University of British Columbia, in which he discusses the general idea of the abolition of free trade.

The origin, terms and probable results of the Federal Rural Credits Bill are ably discussed by George E. Putnam in the "American Economic Review" for December.

The January "North American" contains President Lowell's exposition of The League to Enforce Peace and Sydney Brooks' "Meaning of the Lloyd-George Ministry," which he calls the triumph of democracy. He says of the new Premier that he is the right man in the right place, who will bring about a screwing up of infinitely varied machinery, a deepening of spiritual elements to form the fighting strength of a modern nation.

"The Danger in India" is discussed in the December issue of the "Nineteenth Century" by the Right Honorable Lord Sydenham, of Coombe. His intimate knowledge of affairs in India leads to the statement that affairs there are being very much neglected, and only the ardent loyalty of the Indians saves England from a revolution. The situation there is more dangerous because of intensely complex social structures, the medley of races, creeds, languages and customs contained in this geographical entity. As yet India feels the strain of war very slightly, but the experience that her soldiers are gaining in foreign lands will make an uneradicable impression on the national consciousness.

H. N. Brailsford's "The Civil Strife in Greece" ("Contemporary Review" for December) is a discussion of the work of Venizelos and of his party in establishing and carrying on a revolutionary government under the guns of a European fleet.

## Reports from The Historical Field

The World Peace Foundation (Boston) has published a pamphlet entitled, "The Conciliation Plan of the League to Enforce Peace," in which the attempt is made to show that the conciliation plan is in accord with the terms of American arbitration treaties.

The Florida History Teachers' Association held its annual meeting at Arcadia, December 29. The following officers were chosen: President, Miss Caroline M. Brevard, Tallahassee, Fla.; vice-president, Prof. David M. Cook, Tampa, Fla.; secretary, Miss Essie May Williams, Jacksonville, Fla.; Executive Committee, Prof. Arthur Williams, Tallahassee, Fla.; Prof. D. B. Shaver, Wauchula, Fla.; Prof. Albert Isaac, Cocoanut Grove, Fla.; Mrs. W. P. Coffey, Gainesville, Fla.

The Library of Congress has issued its List of American Doctoral Dissertations Printed in 1916, prepared by Mr. A. M. Stephens. The volume also contains supplementary lists of thesis for 1912, 1913 and 1914. The volume also shows an alphabetical list of authors arranged under the names of the universities conferring degrees. Twenty-one titles are listed under the heading of History and Topography; thirty-five are listed under Social Sciences; and twelve under Political Science. It is to be noted, however, that a number of those included in social and political science are historical in treatment.

The National Council of the Boy Scouts of America has completed the preparation of an educational department for the Boy Scout Movement, at the head of which has been placed Mr. Lorne W. Barkley. There is also to be an Educational Advisory Committee, composed of Prof. Jeremiah W. Jenks, Dean James E. Russell and Prof. Norman E. Richardson. The aim of the educational department will be to co-operate with school teachers and school administrators in bringing about a proper understanding of the educational value of the Boy Scout Movement.

The History and Civics Section of the Pennsylvania State Educational Association met in connection with the annual session of the Association at the Technical High School, Harrisburg, December 27. The chairman was A. B. Moyer, of the Downingtown High School, and the secretary, L. J. Reese, of the Lansford High School. The following program was provided: Community Civics, "Its Scope and Method," by Samuel H. Ziegler, West Philadelphia High School for Boys; discussion. "Industrial History, Its Place and Relative Value in Secondary Schools," Prof. Hiram H. Shank, Lebanon Valley College; discussion. "Shall We Change from the Four Unit Plan to the Three Unit Basis," by A. D. Thomas, Hazleton; discussion. Informal Round Table Conference, topics: 1. Problem Method vs. Narrative Textbook Method; 2. Conference Plan vs. Combined Study-Recitation Plan; 3. Should Source Material and Collateral Readings be Standardized for Secondary Schools? 4. Do You Favor the Continuity Plan in Teaching History Instead of the Elective System? 5. Would a Delimitation of the History Course Benefit Small High Schools? 6. Do you give definite instructions for preparing note-books? 7. How may history teaching be improved?

The well-known English historian, Dr. H. A. L. Fisher, has accepted the office of president of the Board of Educa-

tion in the new Lloyd-George Ministry. Dr. Fisher has had wide experience in educational affairs, and has shown deep sympathy in such movements as the University Tutorial Classes and the Workers' Educational Association.

Dr. William H. Mace, for twenty-five years connected with the Department of History of Syracuse University, has recently been appointed editor of educational text for Rand, McNally & Co., of Chicago and New York. Dr. Mace is the author of a number of history text-books published by this firm.

"Sargent's Handbook of American Private Schools for 1916" has been recently published by Mr. Porter E. Sargent of Boston. It contains nearly 100 pages, giving a general description of private school education in the United States with a select bibliography. This is followed by about 300 pages of lists and descriptions of private schools throughout the country arranged both according to geographical distribution and the grade of the courses of study. The book also includes lists of student periodicals, educational associations and magazines, teachers' agencies, school supply dealers and other information of value to educators and those looking for guidance in educational matters.

Volume 1 of the "Final Report of the Ohio Co-operative Topographic Survey of the Ohio-Michigan Boundary" has appeared from the press. The volume contains the report of the commissioners; the report of the engineer; and a brief sketch of the history of the boundary dispute between Ohio and Michigan.

"Sectionalism, Representation, and the Electoral Question in Ante-Bellum South Carolina" is the title of a paper which appears in the Washington University Studies for October, 1916 (Volume 4, Part 2, No. 1, Washington University, St. Louis, Mo.). The study begins with about 1829 and continues down to 1858. It is accompanied with a number of maps showing the popular vote and legislative vote on important questions in the State's history.

The "Mississippi Valley Historical Review" for December, 1916, contains the following papers: "Effects of Secession Upon the Commerce of the Mississippi Valley," by E. L. Colter; "Alabama and the Federal Government," by T. H. Jack; "Sir John Johnson, Loyalist," by M. G. Walker, and "Historical Activities in the Trans-Mississippi and Northwest," by D. E. Clark.

The New Jersey State Department of Public Instruction has recently issued a syllabus for high schools entitled, "The Teaching of Social Studies, Including History." The monograph was prepared by Mr. Albert B. Meredith, Assistant Commissioner of Education, and by the following committee of New Jersey teachers of history: Mr. Arthur D. Arnold, chairman, Principal of High School, Passaic; Miss Sarah A. Dynes, State Normal School, Trenton; Mr. Samuel B. Howe, South Side High School, Newark; Dr. Daniel C. Knowlton, Central Manual Training and Commercial High School, Newark; Dr. Byron C. Matthews, Barringer High School, Newark, and Miss Florence E. Stryker, State Normal School, Montclair. Four courses of study are outlined in detail—first, Early European History to 1700, including English history and colonial American history; second, Modern European History Since 1700, including contemporary civilizations; third, United States History Since 1760 and Civic Theory and Practice; fourth, Economics. The department does not prescribe any fixed arrangement of these courses. Several plans are proposed.

## PLAN I.

- Grade 9—Community Civics, including a study of vocations, 5 periods.  
 Grade 10—Early European History, 5 periods.  
 Grade 11—Modern European History, 5 periods.  
 Grade 12—Two courses:  
 a. United States History, and Civic Theory and Practice, 5 periods.  
 b. Economics, 5 periods.

## PLAN II.

- Grade 8—Community Civics, including a study of Vocations, 2 or 3 periods.  
 Grade 9—Community Civics, including a study of Vocations, 5 periods.  
 Grade 10—Early European History, 5 periods.  
 Grade 11—Modern European History, 5 periods.  
 Grade 12—Two courses:  
 a. United States History, and Civic Theory and Practice, 5 periods.  
 b. Economics.

## PLAN III.

- Grade 8—Community Civics, including a study of Vocations, 5 periods.  
 Grade 9—Early European History, 5 periods.  
 Grade 10—Modern European History, 5 periods.  
 Grade 11—United States History, and Civic Theory and Practice, 5 periods.  
 Grade 12—Economics, 5 periods.

## PLAN IV.

- Grade 8—Community Civics, including a study of Vocations, 5 periods.  
 Grade 9—Early European History, 5 periods.  
 Grade 10—  
 Grade 11—Modern European History, 5 periods.  
 Grade 12—United States History, and Civic Theory and Practice, 5 periods.

A detailed analysis of each one of the four courses is given. In addition there are suggestions for teachers, a bibliography of the teaching of history, and a suggested one hundred dollar library to cover the entire four courses. References to dealers and publishers of pictures, lantern slides, wall and desk maps and atlases are also included.

J. F. Byrne's article in the January "Century" on "The Irish Grievance" presents the case of the anti-English party by outlining the century and more of strenuous effort by Irish Nationalists to avenge the measures of redress by constitutional means, and concludes that this is obviously impossible as long as the veto power remains in the hands of the House of Lords.

## THE CANDID PROFESSOR SPEAKS.

"Gentlemen, this course in English history which I am going to give you will bore me as much as it will bore you. I wrote these notes over ten years ago, so that if any of you have notes taken by former students you can read even the jokes and *jeux d'esprit* before you come into class. I don't expect to know any of you personally. My secretary corrects the final examination papers. Nevertheless, I shall be willing to recommend you as preparatory school teachers at the close of the year. I do this to accommodate a bureau of employment conducted by the college. The recommendations are read by those in authority, and I want them to sound well, so that I will hold my job. I shall now begin to read the notes, and I feel sure that you all will absently take down erroneous notes in your usual illegible handwriting."—"Life."

## HAKLUYT EXHIBIT.

At the New York Public Library, Fifth Avenue and Forty-second Street, an interesting exhibition commemorative of the death of Richard Hakluyt, the father of British geography, has been placed on view. This exhibition fills eleven show cases in which are shown many exceedingly rare publications. They include the earliest collections of voyages that were printed in any language, prior to Hakluyt's own works, and cover the period from 1504 to 1555. Of Richard Hakluyt's own works the Library shows every original publication. His "Divers Voyages," 1582, one of eight known copies, is also the first book in the English language which relates to the territory which became the United States of America, and in which Hakluyt began his campaign for British maritime exploration. A still rarer book is his translation of Laudonnière's "Notable Historie of Florida," 1597; also "Virginia richly valued," which gives a description of the country south of Virginia, and is believed to have been published under the patronage of the Virginia Company. It is a translation made from a Portuguese "Relation," 1557, of which the Library owns one of the two known copies, the other being in the British Museum. This Portuguese work is also exhibited. Other works translated or edited by Hakluyt shown are those of Peter Martyr and Galvano. But the chief memorial of Hakluyt in this exhibition, or indeed in any exhibition that could be made respecting him or his work, is the only known manuscript of his treatise on "Western Discovery," written in 1584, which was never printed in his day, seeing the light only in 1877, when it was brought out by the Maine Historical Society. In this manuscript he exhibited systematically the political, commercial and religious advantages to be derived by England from attempted colonization of America, particularly what is now the United States. He presented a copy to Queen Elizabeth before September, 1584, and made a second copy, wholly in his hand, which he gave to Sir Francis Walsingham shortly before Easter, 1585. Both of these manuscripts were lost almost from the time when they were written, and the manuscript exhibited lay unnoticed for nearly three hundred years until the publication already mentioned.

Hakluyt suggested or lent his aid to other contemporaries in bringing out translations of geographical works of importance, such as "Mendoza's China," 1588; Leo Africanus's "A Geographical History of Africa," 1600, and Lescarbot's "New France," or Canada, 1609. It was in 1589 that the first large volume of Hakluyt's "Principall Navigations Voiages and Discoveries," came from the press. Of this the New York Public Library has three copies. It has also five sets of the great three volume edition, showing virtually all known variations, 1598-1600, and one of these sets is particularly interesting to Americans because two of the title pages contain the autograph of Sir Ferdinando Gorges, the explorer of Maine. The original work of Samuel Purchas, 1625-1626, the continuation of Hakluyt and the various more modern edited editions and extracts of Hakluyt and Purchas are also in this exhibition, whilst about six cases contain a complete set of the publications of the Hakluyt Society named after him, which were issued from 1847 to 1915. The late Sir Clements Markham, president of the Royal Geographical Society and of the Hakluyt Society, pointed out that Hakluyt and Sir Walter Raleigh were virtually the founders of those colonies which eventually formed the United States, and that therefore Americans who revere the name of Raleigh should give an equal place to that of Hakluyt. It is with this idea in mind that the Public Library has taken the occasion of Hakluyt's tercentenary to bring before the American people the interest that his work has for them, and how closely it concerns their antecedents.

### NATIONAL ELECTION REPRODUCED IN SCHOOL.

In many schools in the country the boys and girls on election day, November 7, reproduced in school the principal methods of balloting pursued in their community. An account of such a school election is given below, describing what was done in the two junior high schools of Kenosha, Wis., a description of which appears in the "Educational News Bulletin" (Wisconsin) for December 1, 1916.

"A broad swath was recently cut in the important field of training for citizenship by the holding of an election in the two Kenosha Junior High Schools. These two schools of about 250 boys and girls each are housed according to a sort of modified Gary plan in one building known as the Frank School.

"The plans for the election experiment were made by the teachers in civics of these two schools, Matilda Hansen and Winifred Farley. Here is their report.

"About two weeks before the election Russell H. Jones, the county clerk, visited the school, and described the management of an election and the process of voting. He also furnished regular polling lists and tally sheets for tabulating returns. A room in the basement of the Frank School is used as a polling place for the fourth ward of Kenosha, and this enabled the children to carry out the voting in the regular way by using the room the day before election. The whole program was carried out even to the swearing in of one of the election clerks.

"The campaign situation had been studied in connection with current events in the civics classes in anticipation of the election. An outline of the necessary material was made, and the following subjects were fully discussed in the civics classes.

"1. The legal qualifications of candidates for the several offices.

"2. Personal qualities necessary to the ideal man for each office.

"3. The method of procedure in the nomination of candidates: a. for the presidential ballot; b. for the state, legislative, congressional, and county ballot.

"4. Manner of registration and the necessity of registering.

"5. Methods of voting—straight ticket—'scratch' ticket.

"6. Method of counting votes: a. By the election board; b. By the county board of canvassers; c. By the state board.

"The plan of conducting the election was as follows:

"1. The school represented the city.

"2. Each section of the Junior High School was a ward, viz.: There were the Frank school ward and the Lincoln school ward of the Junior High School City.

"3. The count was made in each ward independent of the other.

"4. The results were totaled as for an entire city. Each ward had its own officials for election.

"We set aside Wednesday, November 1, as registration day. On this occasion, the board of registry, previously selected from the class, took full charge and performed the required duties.

"The following Monday, November 6, was named as election day. As we used the polling place of the fourth ward

of Kenosha, located in the basement of our school house, it was not possible to conduct our election on Tuesday, the regular election day. On this day, our chosen City Clerk swore in the inspector of election with all solemnity. The supplies were taken to the voting place, the ballots marked with the initials of the ballot clerks, every voter was questioned whether he had registered and no ballot was given to a voter not registered unless that voter could produce an affidavit, substantiated by two other voters from his own section. It was most strictly managed by the class members.

"After the votes had all been cast, the election board gathered to count the ballots. With the air of experienced men and women, these boys and girls of the board went through the counting, sorting into different groups the 'straights' and the 'scratchees,' then further dividing the 'straights' into their respective piles.

"The tally was made, blanks furnished for general election returns filled out, and these were filed with the County Clerk of our school.

"Too much credit cannot be given to the teachers who directed this impressive lesson on citizenship in its broadest and most practical aspect—that of voting for national, state and municipal officers."

### A HISTORY GAME.

I find the following game very interesting and profitable when used in connection with history.

One student is sent from the room and while out the teacher, or one of the pupils, decides what historical character he or she is to be. When the student re-enters the room the others ask him questions as though he were the historical character selected; and from the questions asked the pupil guesses who he is.

For example, the teacher sends John Smith from the room and they decide to make him Cyrus the Great. The pupils prepare their questions and give them as called on by the teacher. John is admitted and questions are asked. The following are a few good questions if "Cyrus the Great" is the character chosen: 1. "Were you a vassal to the Median King?" 2. "Were you really so great as history tells us you were?" 3. "Why did you wish to capture the Median King?" 4. "Did you expand the Persian Empire very much during your reign?" etc.

The pupil guesses who he is as soon as possible and the one who "gives it away" is sent out the next time. In case the pupil cannot guess who he is and "gives up," he is sent from the room again and another name is chosen.

This game is very interesting and at the same time is a splendid incentive to study, for the pupils must be thoroughly familiar with the character in order to ask good questions, and in order to guess who they are.

In my ancient history class we play the game for at least half of the period every Friday, provided the average daily grade for the week is good. And the pupils usually bring up good lessons, for it is a dreadful punishment if they are not permitted to play.

This game is just as effective when used in English or American history as it is when used in ancient.

Original by

HENRIETTA AYRE.

Church Hill, Tenn.



# BOOK REVIEWS

EDITED BY PROFESSOR WAYLAND J. CHASE,  
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

AURNER, CLARENCE RAY. *History of Education in Iowa*. Volumes I, II, III, IV. Iowa City, Iowa: State Historical Society, 1916. Pp. xiv, 436; lx, 469; xii, 464; xi, 471. \$2.00 each.

It is gratifying to note that a State Historical Society has considered this aspect of State history worthy of inclusion in its archives. The State Historical Society of Iowa is to be congratulated upon its successful venture into a field of history which has been lamentably neglected by similar institutions. Its commission to Doctor Aurner has been creditably discharged; he has contributed a valuable chapter to the history of Iowa.

In reviewing a work so comprehensive in scope, it will serve no commendable purpose to magnify relatively insignificant errors. The author has examined a huge amount of source material, and has treated it well. Undoubtedly opinions will differ on the matter of relative values and proportion, but it will be generally admitted that the work is authentic, and that, within its limitations, it is fairly complete.

ROBERT FRANCIS SEYBOLT.

The University of Wisconsin.

WHITE, J. WILLIAM. *A Text-book of the War for Americans*. Fourth edition of "A Primer of the War for Americans." Revised and enlarged. Philadelphia: John C. Winston Co., 1915. Pp. 551. \$1.00.

This volume is a compilation of extracts from documents, essays, editorials, and books relating to the war.

The author has adopted the Socratic method of presentation, each chapter having for its title a question, the answer to which lies in the chapter itself. The scope of the work is revealed by some of the questions so considered: "What evidence exists as to the fundamental cause of this war?" "What is the evidence as to the events immediately leading up to the war in their relation to the culpability of Germany?" "Has there been reason to modify or to mitigate the almost universal condemnation of Germany's treatment of Belgium felt and expressed at the outset in this country?" "What are the principles represented by the opposing forces in this war?" "What are the extent and the aims of the organized German propaganda in America?" "How much reliance is to be placed upon statements emanating from Germany at this time?" "What are the duties of America at this time?" "What can America do to bring about peace?"

The author believes the war was made in Germany; its fundamental cause was "the determination of Germany to attain 'world power'" (page 17); this determination has been expressed for over forty years in the writings and teachings of prominent and representative Germans; the struggle was precipitated by an ambitious autocratic military caste headed by a neurotic—"in all probability a neuropsychopathic" (page 52)—over-lord, "with medieval views of his relation to his country and the world, and supported by a subservient corps of 'learned men,' the majority of whom are paid servants of the State" (page 499). Germany's conduct of the war has been the logical outcome of her philosophy that "necessity knows no law;" for "she has disregarded, . . . or broken . . . many international laws and customs. . . . In each instance the infraction has been accompanied or followed by quibbling, . . . or untruthful attempts to explain, . . . or vindicate the action. The evidence as to atrocities committed by Ger-

mans . . . is formidable, and is constantly increasing" (page 500). America should proclaim "our absolute and unreserved belief in the right and justice of the cause of the Allies, and our determination, should the worst come to them, that they shall have our material support to our last dollar, our last bushel of corn, our last drop of blood" (page 503).

The above summary renders unnecessary any comment on the character of the work. Military events receive no attention. The volume is supplied with two illustrations, an unscholarly bibliography, and an incomplete general index. It also contains a useful "Index of Names," giving a brief identification of each person listed. The placing of foot-notes at the end of the volume is a nuisance. On page 28 the author uses "Arabia" for "Bessarabia." While the work cannot be regarded as an impartial or scholarly treatment of the Great War, readers will find it entertaining and useful as a collection of material upholding the causes of the Allies.

HOWARD C. HILL.

State Normal School, Milwaukee, Wis.

MACE, WILLIAM H. *Washington: A Virginia Cavalier. Little Lives of Great Men*. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co., 1916. Pp. 180. 35 cents.

The story of Washington's life is told in a straightforward, interesting way that should hold the attention of grammar school pupils. The hero's boyhood is particularly well described. In the treatment of his adult life the account follows closely, with a few exceptions, the events in which Washington directly participated. The little book, which is only four by six inches in size, has no maps, but the illustrations are abundant; some of these are reproductions of paintings, some are fanciful pictures, and there are many sketches drawn from objects at Mount Vernon and elsewhere, associated with the Washington family.

ALBERT H. SANFORD.

State Normal School, La Crosse, Wis.

MACDONALD, J. R. MORETON. *A History of France*. In three volumes. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1915. Pp. 366, 399, 551. \$6.00.

For many years no general history of France of medium size has been written in English. Since Kitchin wrote, extensive research has gone on, and so a new work embodying its results is welcome.

Mr. Macdonald has devoted his first volume to the medieval period, the second to the years 1515-1789, and the third to modern France up to 1871. It is a pity that he did not bring it up to date. His literary style is good and the book is readable. Perhaps it is somewhat open to criticism for emphasis on political, military and diplomatic history; but that does not mean that the economic side has been wholly neglected. The book seems to be based on sound scholarship, and should prove to be useful to the general reader. For high school pupils the language is perhaps a little difficult, but it may be helpful to the advanced students.

Ohio State University.

CLARENCE PERKINS.

MCCARTHY, CHARLES; SWAN, FLORA, AND MCMULLIN, JENNIE. *Elementary Civics*. New York: Thompson, Brown & Co., 1916. Pp. viii, 232. 75 cents.

In the nature of its contents, and especially in the apportionment of space to topics, this book follows no model known to the reviewer. Of its 224 pages preceding the index, 50 pages are given to appendices, most of which are quite usable. The amount of space devoted to the ques-

tions that follow each chapter is large, one-ninth that of the reading matter proper. The subject of city government is given two-sevenths of the entire space. A chapter on "Efficiency" comprises one-sixth of the book preceding the appendices, and treats of industrial, as well as political efficiency.

The book represents in a very marked way the reaction against the old style of civics text which was devoted mainly to descriptions of governmental organization and constitutional functions. The questions, and sometimes the text, suggest that facts should be gathered about forms and organization. For example, the text says (page 98) that Congress is so well described in the Constitution that "you can study it out for yourselves." Criticisms of our government and comparisons with forms and activities of government elsewhere are frequent—an excellent feature of the work.

Probably on account of its co-operative authorship, the subject matter varies considerably in its adaptability to pupils of the eighth grade. In places the style is simple, clear, and attractive; in other passages unwarranted assumptions are made, severe condensation renders the subject matter difficult, and complex topics are introduced.

Surely, as the preface says, "the chapters are for reading and discussion. A teacher of strength and originality, by the aid of the stimulating text and questions of this book, may have a class of boys and girls who are learning facts instead of words, who are thinking as they learn, who are in touch with actualities, and who are getting real training for citizenship.

S.

STEPHENS, KATE. *The Mastering of Mexico*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1916. Pp. xi, 335. \$1.50.

Channing, in Volume I of his "History of the United States," page 60, footnote, says: "The student of United States history will gain a sufficient knowledge of the conquest of Mexico from Prescott's brilliant work, or better from Bernal Diaz del Castillo's 'Historia Verdadera,' of which there are several translations." The task Miss Stephens set for herself was the boiling down of the three volumes of Maudslay's translation of this narrative of Diaz (Hakluyt Society Publications), and combining the product with excerpts from Lockhart's "Memoirs" of this conquistador. This companion of Cortes and participant in one of the greatest expeditions known to mankind, wrote with exceptional vividness and power, and these elements of strength have been carried over in good degree into this condensation of the chronicle. For scholars the fuller form of the narrative must continue to be essential, but in the briefer there is good source material for the high school pupil and stirring narrative for the general reader interested either in tales of adventure or in the earliest history of suffering Mexico.

DE SOUZA, CHARLES, AND MACFALL, HALDANE. *Germany in Defeat. A Strategic History of the War. First Phase*. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co., Ltd. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. Pp. 207. \$2.00, net.

DE SOUZA, CHARLES. *Germany in Defeat. A Strategic History of the War*. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co., Ltd. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. Pp. 232. \$2.00, net.

These two books have apparently been written for two reasons: First, to explain the strategy of the war so the civilian can understand what happened, and why, and not be misled by the reports and comments of badly informed journalists; and second, to make the public "realize that Germany was defeated at the Marne—that she has been a

defeated people ever since—and that at hand is, and must resolutely be carried out, her complete crushing as a fighting force." The authors believe that "the arrogant publication of high Prussian officers of scores of books" laying bare their elaborate plans for the conquest of France was intended to blind public opinion and lead the French to do what the German leaders wished and expected. The authors are sure that Joffre gained by the first offensive in Upper Alsace, though lesser officers made mistakes, that he wisely avoided a hasty advance into Belgium which would have made a defeat likely, and that he kept the initiative all along and won the campaign by superior brains. They give high praise also to generals like Sarraill and Foch, who did so much to help.

The second volume covers the period from the Battle of the Marne to the close of the first battle of Ypres in October, 1914. Both volumes are very well written. They give clear explanations of the main movements, and make the motives plain to the civilian readers. They give a fine analysis of the moves in the great chess game of war. Naturally many will disagree with the views expressed by the authors. The complete truth will not be beyond dispute for many years. It is obvious of course that the author's point of view is decidedly French and English.

The books are provided with very many excellent maps and plans to illustrate the various movements. The mature high school boys will be much interested in these books. Ohio State University.

CLARENCE PERKINS.

HOWARD, DANIEL. *American History, Government and Institutions*. Boston: The Palmer Co., 1908 and 1914. Pp. 233. \$1.00.

Under the above title and in the compass of 233 pages the author discusses a little of almost everything concerning America, including history, geography, government, biography, citizenship and American life. The book was written primarily for classes of foreigners in public evening schools. It has no value for anything else, and should have been much better even for that. The part dealing with American history is particularly objectionable. Some 90 pages in all are given to American history, of which 51 pages are given to the colonial period, and 10 of these 51 pages are given to the military events of the Revolutionary War. Only 12 pages are given to the period from 1783 to 1860, followed by 14 pages given to the Civil War—chiefly military history of the old type. Only two pages are given to the period 1865 to 1898, and three pages to the Spanish-American War. The author showed little care for proper perspective. Likewise, it has evidently been some time since the author has studied his history. The following quotation will indicate the type of untruthful history—if there can be any such thing—which the author would have our new immigrants learn. Speaking of the effects of the French and Indian War, he says: "The Americans had to pay twice as much money as the English for the expenses of the army, but when the war was over the English tried to make the Americans pay them larger taxes so that they could get back what they had spent in all the wars that had been fought in America."

Some other parts of the book contain some valuable information which might be used as reading lessons for foreigners in the evening schools, and made the basis of conversation in English. The author has attempted too much, however, in a book of this size, with the inevitable result that none is entirely satisfactory. The book would be more satisfactory if the part on American history had been left out entirely.

WILSON P. SHORTRIDGE.

North High School, Minneapolis.

BREASTED, JAMES H. *Ancient Times: A History of the Early World*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1916. Pp. 742. \$1.60.

Professor Breasted's book is divided into five parts, as follows: "The Earliest Europeans," 34 pages; "The Orient," 186 pages; "The Greeks," 224 pages; "The Mediterranean World in the Hellenistic Age and the Roman Empire," 156 pages, and "The Roman Empire," 116 pages. The outstanding feature of this book's arrangement is the emphasis placed on pre-Greek civilization. The arrangement will provoke some grumbling, no doubt, but the author justifies it because so much Oriental history has been recovered in the past generation that it is impossible to explain the rise of civilization in the usual limit of pages. Therefore "A text-book which devotes a brief fifty- or sixty-page introduction to the Orient, and begins 'real history' with the Greeks is not proportioned in accordance with modern knowledge of the ancient world" (p. 5).

In each part, only "a sufficient framework of political organization and historical events has been laid down; but the bulk of the space has been devoted to the life of man in all its manifestations—society, industry, commerce, religion, art, literature (p. iii). This method of treatment is highly commendable, and, with its charming and entertaining style, will captivate the attention of high school boys and girls.

This book has other points which recommend it as a text-book. It is profusely illustrated, and it is generously supplied with maps; the chapters are broken into sections, and the magazines contain topic headings; each chapter is followed with a list of questions designed to provoke thought, and the last chapter is followed with a well organized bibliography, in which the books referred to usually have estimates placed on them. On the whole, the book represents the last word in text-book construction.

HENRY NOBLE SHERWOOD.

State Normal School, La Crosse, Wisconsin.

BECA, COLONEL. *A Study of the Development of Infantry Tactics*. Translated by Major A. F. Custance. With a Preface by Brigadier-General G. W. Hackett Pain. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1911. Pp. xvi, 131. 75 cents.

Only a military historian can properly evaluate this brochure on the development of infantry tactics. But though published just before the war, the amateur student of military history can see that in some respects it is already out-of-date. The author, a colonel in the Portuguese army, perceived but dimly the astonishing changes which would be brought about by the aeroplane. While realizing the tendency towards more extensive battle frontages, he also apparently deemed the present extensive battle lines and intricate trench systems impossible, "for thin lines of great extent would rarely be able to bring about decisive results" (p. 102).

The one point emphasized repeatedly is the all-importance of the human factor in modern as in ancient warfare. "Tactical science . . . possesses two indispensable bases, the science of arms, and the science of human nature. . . . The result of sound reasoning is this, that the study of man, of the psychical factors of battle—strength of will, courage and cowardice, discipline, coolness and excitability . . . should in the intellectual education of officers take precedence of the study of arms and of the merely material factors" (p. 33).

To students of history, the sketch of infantry tactics from ancient to modern times (chapter II) will possess high interest. Fighting systematically on the defensive, Colonel

Beca maintains, was the chief tactical cause of the defeat of the Austrians by the French in 1859, of the French by the Prussians in 1870, and of the Russians by the Japanese in 1905. Will history report a similar failure by the Allies in the present struggle? Many will learn with surprise that Mohammedanism was "the re-establishment of the religion of Abraham" (p. 24). "Martel" contains but one "1" (p. 24). The defeat of the French when using the linear tactics of Frederick II and the victory of the Prussians by their employment of Napoleonic methods in the Franco-Prussian war form one of the ironies of history (p. 46).

Students interested in military matters—and what student is not nowadays?—will find this little volume worth reading. It contains a number of drawings illustrating the modern disposition of troops en route and in battle formation. It has no index.

HOWARD C. HILL.

State Normal School, Milwaukee.

CORWIN, EDWARD S. *French Policy and the American Alliance of 1778*. Princeton: University Press, 1916. Pp. ix, 430. \$2.00.

The Franco-American alliance has been analyzed and interpreted from a variety of points of view. Students of the event agree that it was an important episode in the century-old conflict between France and England for world power; that it was a determining factor in the disruption of the British Empire and the attainment of American independence. They have, however, differed widely on the problems of motive which actuated France in giving substantial aid to the revolting English colonies. Each one has sought to make a single key to open the door to the mystery of motive. The alliance has been explained by the desire of France to recover a lost empire; to protect her over-seas possessions against English aggression; or to secure the advantages of commerce with a new nation. It is held that France succored America out of a spirit of revenge against her traditional and dominant rival; or that French liberalism heard and responded to the call of American freedom in distress.

Dr. Corwin presents the thesis that the focus of the French foreign office was adjusted to the continent of Europe, not America, as the first consideration. He seeks to prove that by linking herself to America, France was moved by an intense desire to restore her classical role of leadership in the European world. The power of France had been tarnished by the triumph of English arms in the Seven Years' War. The source of England's controlling position in world politics lay in her colonies; sever these from her and thereby undermine her economic and naval power as the instruments of her dominance. So ran the French argument. The enfeeblement of England in America as the stepping-stone to French prestige in Europe was the impelling motive in French diplomacy. The author does not set aside as negligible the various factors advanced by others to explain French motive in making the alliance. What he does is to show to what extent they are tenable as leading motives and what part they played in the efforts to reassert French control in Europe. And so questions of commerce, territory, sea-power and foreign relations all take their place in the scheme, not to rehabilitate the French empire in the new world, but to promote French influence in the old by shearing England's strength in colonies.

Dr. Corwin's study is not unique in the sense that it is based upon a wide examination of unpublished sources. The staple of source material is Doniol's great collection of documents from the archives of the French foreign office,

which Dr. Corwin has subjected to thorough examination and scholarly analysis. This has been supplemented by a careful use of memoirs, newspapers, writings of public men, Wharton, and the journals of Continental Congress. A critical bibliographical note is a worthy and instructive part of the volume. The study is not new because it assumes points of view and presents factors hitherto left out of account. What is distinctive, and which alone entitles it to a high place in the literature of the subject, is the author's conception and treatment of the whole matter. He recognizes the fact that historical treatment involves the adjusting and balancing of numerous factors and inter-relationships. Such was the Franco-American alliance; a sort of chess-problem difficulty demanding the power to comprehend and evaluate a good number of interacting forces. Herein lies the value of the work before us, that is, the analysis of all items, a careful apportionment of various forces and motives, and a nice synthesis of all in a general history of the alliance. Under his careful workmanship and broad view, the Franco-Spanish alliance, the attempts of France to adjust the antagonistic interests of Spain and the United States over western lands, the French influence upon Continental Congress, the final aloofness of France from America, and the separate negotiations of America for peace with England assume a fuller and deeper meaning in a period of episodes.

It is altogether a fine and serious piece of work.

W. T. ROOT.

University of Wisconsin.

YOUNG, ARTHUR NICHOLS. *The Single Tax Movement in the United States*. Princeton: University Press, 1916. Pp. x, 336. \$1.50.

The single tax doctrine is almost a religious tenet with many people, some would call it a superstition. Its advocates have in some cases become fanatics, and its opponents have fought it with the zeal of those who fight a thing which they fear may be right after all, but which they feel is against their interests or class creed. No one who is interested in the development of economic thought can afford to ignore the movement which, ignoring writings of the Physiocrats, may be called the evolution of the doctrines of Henry George.

The opponents of this doctrine insist that George's followers are dishonest since they would take from those who hold a particular kind of property their accumulations, and give these accumulations to those holding other sorts of property. On the other hand, the devotees of the doctrine claim that it will solve all the ills of man arising from economic causes, and therefore they at once, by making ridiculous claims, alienate the confidence of the intelligent student. The single tax is generally discussed with heat rather than with light; and those who argue it generally do so for the purpose of winning a debate rather than to discover the truth.

"In the present volume the writer has undertaken to give a complete historical account of the single tax movement in the United States, together with a discussion of the

single taxers, their program, the present status of the movement, and its influence upon economic thought and upon fiscal and social reform.

"A brief introductory survey of the chief anticipations of Henry George's doctrines is presented in order to show the place of the movement in the history of economic thought. Then is traced the formulation of George's economic ideas in the light of the economic environment amid which he spent the formative years of his life, the California of the two decades following the gold discovery of 1848. Next follows a description of the reception of 'Progress and Poverty' in the eighties and of Henry George's activities in the spreading of his gospel. Succeeding chapters describe the development of the single tax movement through the recent political campaigns undertaken with the aid of the Joseph Fels endowment. Finally there is a consideration of some general aspects of the movement, and an appraisal of its significance."

The work is admirably done, and the present reviewer knows of no other single volume likely to give to the reader a fairer or a more illuminating account of this important movement. It is the work of a careful student and an impartial critic, who has spared no pains to collect and digest all the best that has been written for and against George's thesis. Furthermore, *mirabile dictu* of a discussion of an economic problem, much of the discussion is so interesting that when one begins a chapter one is very likely to finish it before putting down the book.

EDGAR DAWSON.

Hunter College of the City of New York.

HALL, JENNIE. *Our Ancestors in Europe*. New York: Silver, Burdett & Co., 1916. Pp. xx, 428. 76 cents.

Among the numerous books that have appeared recently to meet the requirement of the sixth grade work in history, as outlined by the Committee of Eight, this is one of the most successful. Its text is more extended than that of some of its rivals. The story is everywhere well told and is thoroughly enjoyable. The maps and illustrations are very numerous and appropriate. Notes under the pictures call attention to their prominent features, and the "List of Illustrations" states the origin of each one. The questions that follow the chapters are excellent, suggesting constructive endeavor and plans for dramatization, and calling for comparisons of the topics discussed with similar features of our present civilization.

ALBERT H. SANFORD.

State Normal School, La Crosse, Wis.

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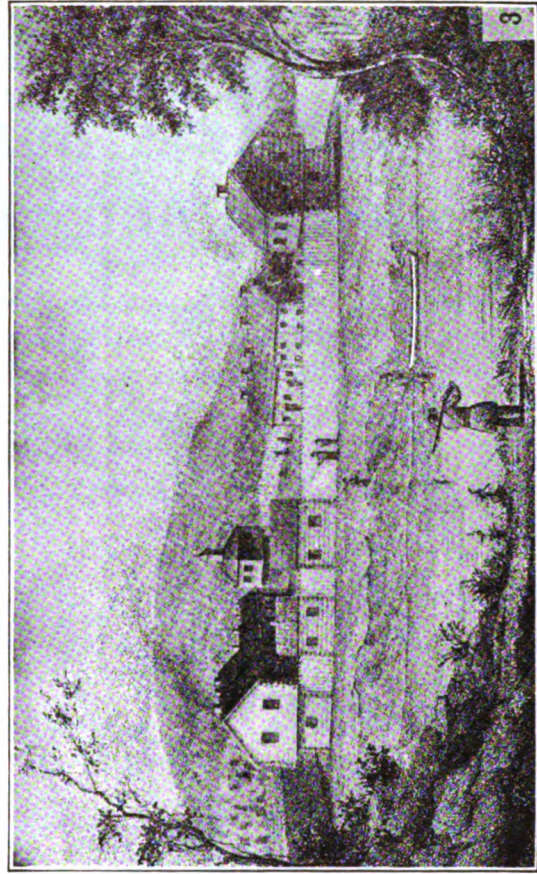
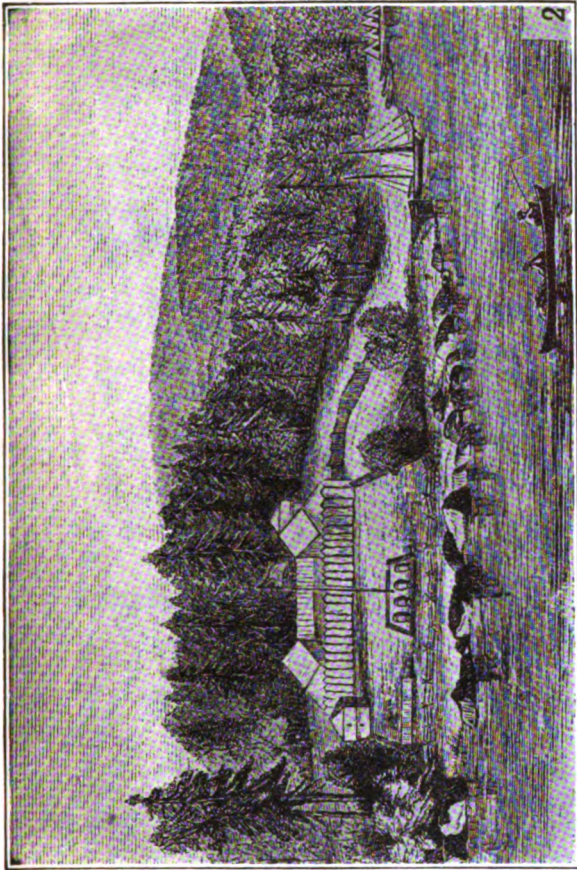
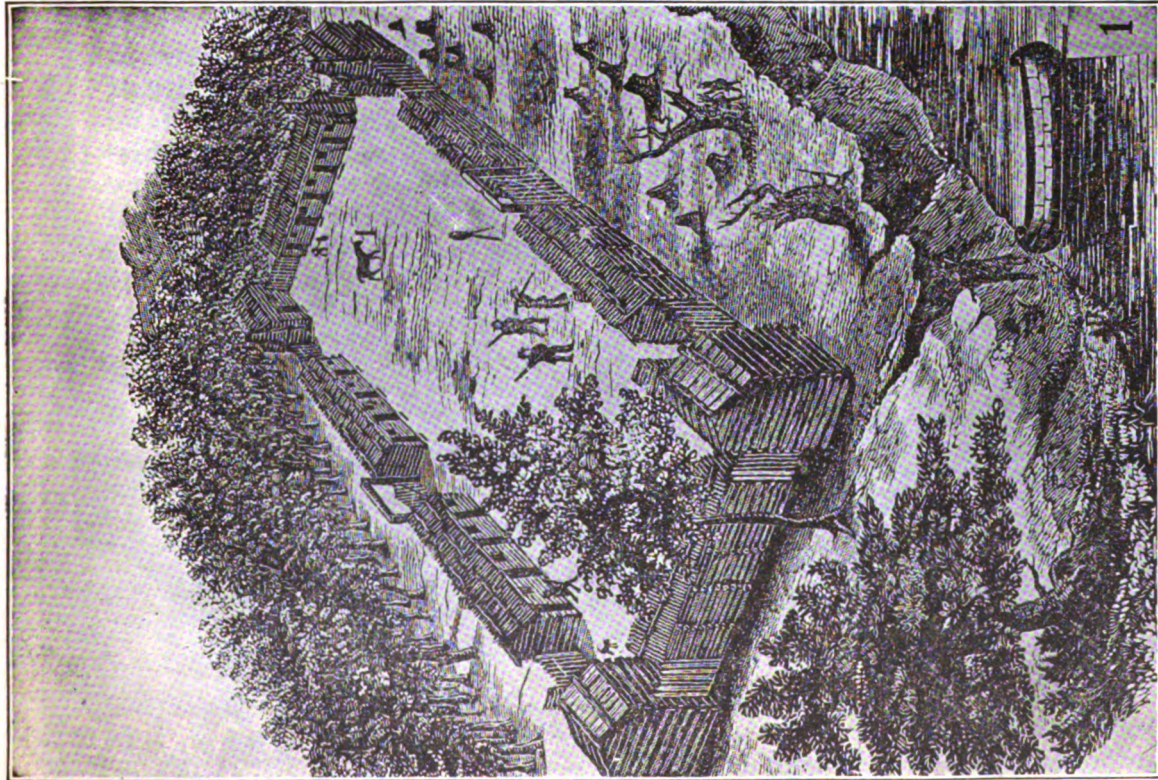
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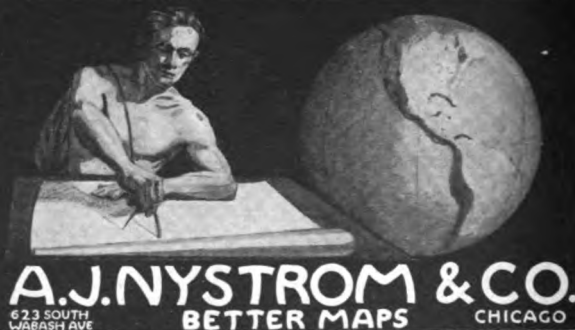
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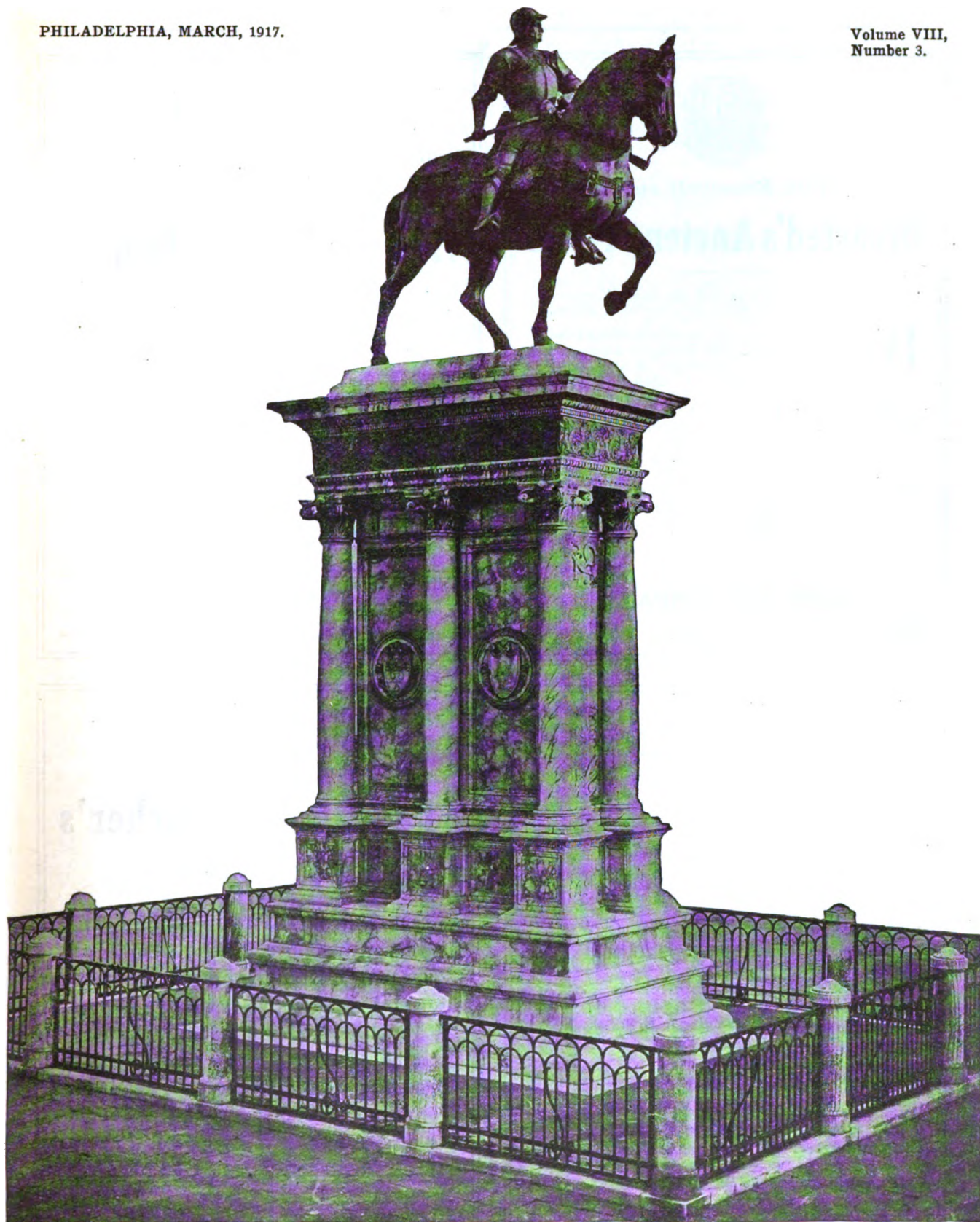




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PHILADELPHIA, MARCH, 1917.

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## CONTENTS

	PAGE
A Visit to Babylon, by Prof. A. T. Olmstead....	79
Teaching Contemporary History, by P. T. Moon	82
European History in California High Schools, by G. Robinson .....	85
Historic Features of Newark's Anniversary Celebration, by Dr. D. C. Knowlton.....	89
Schools and Americanization.....	95
History and Vocational Training in High Schools, by W. P. Shortridge.....	96
Reports from the Historical Field.....	100
Book Reviews, edited by Prof. W. J. Chase.....	101
History Teachers' Associations.....	104
Periodical Literature, by Dr. G. B. Richards.....	105
Recent Historical Publications, listed by Dr. C. A. Coulomb .....	105

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PHILADELPHIA

# The History Teacher's Magazine

Volume VIII.  
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PHILADELPHIA, MARCH, 1917.

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## A Visit to Babylon

BY PROFESSOR A. T. OLMSTEAD, UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI.

Let us imagine ourselves visitors to Babylon, perchance Greek mercenaries come to offer our services to Nebuchadnezzar. We have left behind us the rolling prairie and have come down into the flat mud plains. At last, there appears on the horizon a long wavering line of palms, marking the course of the Euphrates. Then we behold, rising against the sky, a long low ridge which we identify as the circuit wall of the city. Leaving to our right the huge fortress at the northern projection of the walls, we come closer and observe that the circuit wall really consists of two, with towers bristling across each and with a space between so wide that four-horsed chariots may drive along the top and thus troops may be rushed with the greatest ease from one spot to another along the whole circuit of eleven or twelve miles. In front lies a deep fosse filled with water, while the outer face is of the very best quality of burnt brick. We come to a broad gateway and pass through its double doors of cedar wood overlaid with copper. Amusement seizes us when we realize how massive the wall is, ninety feet in all, but our wonder is a little lessened when we note that the inner wall is but mud brick and when we are told that this alone was the circuit wall before the days of Nebuchadnezzar. Passing through gardens and villas, now being crowded out by the new houses, the rapidly increasing population demands, we reach the inner city wall, again double, but this time with both frankly of mud brick. Our guide informs us that here we have the age famous walls of the old city, called respectively *Imgur Bel*, "Bel has been gracious," and *Nimitti Bel*, "My foundation is Bel."

We cross a canal and enter the main residential portion of the city. The streets do not wind, as we are accustomed to see them at home, but run straight ahead, forming square blocks of houses. Some of the streets are paved and our guide remarks with pride that some are also drained. After the blazing heat of the open country, the narrow streets of houses crowded closely together furnish a welcome shade. We would gladly see some bazaars from which we might buy and the dull monotony of the dead walls does not even furnish a window. There is one break, a curious vertical stepping back in a constantly receding line on the mud brick fronts of many of the houses. Our guide tells us that this is due to the fact that the squares are not quite square after all, that the houses set due north while the streets run somewhat to the south of west. Fortunately, we are not to be kept in a vermin-haunted inn, we are to reside

in the house of a merchant not far from the line of the great procession street. We enter the vestibule, avoiding the entrance to the right, which leads to the more private apartments, and pass through the porter's lodge to wait in the next until the master of the house has been informed of our arrival. After some delay, due to the fact that he is taking his afternoon siesta, we are led across a good sized court with the servants' rooms to one side, and enter a large room, almost fifty feet long, which is shut off from the noise of the street by rooms on all sides and is cut off from even the heat of the courtyard, leaving but a small opening. With its cool looking walls, washed with white gypsum mortar, it is indeed a most comfortable place. Our duty done, we bathe, eat, and climb the wooden stairway to sleep on the flat roof.

The next morning we arise early, to visit the sights in the cool of the day. First we are taken to *Emah*, the temple of the goddess, *Nin mah*. It is our first Babylonian place of worship, and we examine it with interest. It is built entirely of crude brick, for the ever religious Babylonians do not dare neglect the unwritten law which says that no new fangled processes must be used. The temple is therefore merely a great block with few ornaments. Here and there the dead walls, covered with white plaster, are broken by vertical groovings and towers with stepped battlements project on either side of the gate. Passing the altar of crude brick at the entrance, and the double leaves shod with bronze and set in stone sockets, we note how the door was shut on the inside with a huge beam. In the court, we see the cult well, metal vases set in depressions in the pavement, caskets for offerings each side of the door. Here we take our stand and gaze through the room to a second where, on a low pedestal set in a shallow niche, is the statue of *Nin mah*, over life size, standing with her hands folded below her breast, her only adornment her necklaces, her anklets, and her well dressed hair, while her full face indicates the beauty which the oriental demands. Under the pedestal, so we are told, is a casket with the image of *Papsukal*, the messenger of the gods, a gold staff in his tiny hands. As we gaze about, the walls are in general white, but behind the statue and over the entrances we find squares of black asphalt with white borders, standing out with barbaric distinctness in the gloom.

To the west of the temple, we come upon the procession street, named *Aibur shabu*, along which *Marduk* is wont to go in procession on New Year's Day. It is a broad pathway of large white limestone flags,

bordered on the sides by other slabs of red breccia veined with white, and chariots are not normally permitted to traverse it. On either side are high walls which make the approach a death trap for the enemy who would dare approach by this means. No windows look out from these walls, but instead we see huge white lions with yellow manes or yellow lions with red hair, all on a blue ground and resting on rosettes. The whole is formed of enamelled bricks of the finest technique and makes an almost uncanny impression of life. Looking south along the street, our view is blocked by Ishtar sakipat tebisha, the Ishtar Gate, located at the point where the street enters the old city through the walls Imgur Bel and Nimitti Bel. As the gate is now within the second line of defense, it can be more adequately decorated. The gate is flanked by two huge brick towers, crowned by triangular stepped battlements in blue enamel, which surmount small circular loopholes through which the archers may shoot. On the walls are more enamelled figures, huge bulls and great dragons, with scaly coats and hairy manes, forked tongues and viper's horns, sting in tail, their fore legs feline, their hind ones those of a bird of prey. Under our feet, our guide whispers, are still more dragons and bulls, set into the walls as guardian spirits of the place. We gaze upon the cedar doors covered with copper and the bronze thresholds and hinges, but we are not permitted to pass through the fourfold gate and look upon the carved cedar ceiling. This is open only when the king rides forth in state and we must pass through a smaller side entrance. We are not surprised that the king boasts that he made these same town gateways to be "glorious for the amazement of all peoples."

Beyond the Ishtar gate, the procession street brings us to the Lady gate on our right, the entrance to the southern palace of Nebuchadnezzar. As we have been given special permission, we enter the Al bit shar Babili, or "City of the house of the king of Babylon," from which so many of the business documents issue. We pass the guard rooms on either side and enter the great court. To north and to south lie the private apartments of the higher officials, each grouped around a central court, and those of the more important on the south where they never suffer from the direct rays of this terrible sun. Also, we are shown some of the alabaster manufactured here, almost as beautiful as those we make at home. In the walls of the court yard are set inscriptions which tell how mighty cedars have been brought from the mountain of Lebanon, the splendid forest, for the ceilings, how the palace foundations have been grounded firm on the breast of the underworld and raised mountain high by asphalt and brick, and they beg the god Marduk to grant forever that the posterity of Nebuchadnezzar should rule the black-headed folk.

The floor of the courts is sprinkled with water, whose evaporation cools the air appreciably. Still more lions appear at the various gateways. Then we are taken to the underground storerooms for grain and other palace supplies, long narrow rooms with

vaulted roofs, something we have never seen attempted before. In the next court, we see on the south side a large reception room, which, we are told, is a part of the private quarters of the vizier or prime minister, and has direct connection with the palace. The third court is the most interesting. On the north are open archways, permitting the rooms to be cool after dusk. On the south is the throne room of Nebuchadnezzar himself, a huge space of some fifty-five by a hundred and seventy feet in size. Three huge doors lead into it and opposite the central one is a recess and platform whereon the king sits when he gives audience. The guards do not permit us to enter and we must content ourselves with looking at the ornamentation of the court facade, consisting of enamelled tiles with dark blue ground. On this we see strangely familiar columns, yellow drums with white border, double volutes in light blue, rosettes of white and yellow, connected by lines of half open buds, the whole making us suspect that the royal architect was attempting to imitate a columnar architecture something akin to what we saw in northwest Asia Minor. Above and enclosed by a border of yellow, white and black squares, is a long row of double palmettos. Our way farther west into the old palace of Nabopolassar is barred as it is now used for the harem. But we have seen enough to justify the great king in declaring that he "built the palace as the seat of my kingdom, the bond of the vast assemblage of all time, the dwelling place of joy and gladness, the royal command, the lordly injunction I caused to go forth from it."

We have but a short time to visit the northern citadel, with its similar arrangement of rooms and courts. Here we note especially the pavements of white and mottled sandstone, of limestone, and of black basalt. At the entrances are huge basalt lions of the Assyrian type and we observe particularly one unfinished group, one of these enormous animals treading upon a prostrate man. Around the walls are reliefs whose various elements are of blue paste and are detachable. On these walls are also ranged various stelae which have been carried off as booty, a Hittite inscription such as we found them still erecting in Asia Minor, another from the Euphrates region, said to tell of the introduction of bee culture, still another in much simpler cuneiform characters written by an early king of Assyria. We are told stories of how frequently the royal architect changed his mind and how much labor was wasted as a result. Then we snatch a look at the great quay walls along the river and at the ships from the Persian gulf, at the kalaks or rafts built upon inflated skins from the north, at the round tubs of rushes bound together by bitumen, which ferry men across the stream. In the midst of the Euphrates is an island, its space fully occupied by another great fortification. North of the palace are still more impressive walls and a great canal, forty feet wide, which sweeps around the fortifications, its entrance closed against the enemy by huge stone gratings, and supplying water to the palace by means of the numerous well shafts.



We turn back to the procession street and follow it down the slope to the south, over a canal which branches into a broad basin to our right. Beyond this, to the west, lie the slums, while to the east is the residential quarter of the merchants, clustering around the shrine of Ishtar, goddess of Agade. Soon we begin to see on our right the long wall, studded with gateways and towers, which forms the outer enclosure of Etemenanki, "the house of the foundation of heaven and earth," the great temple tower of Babylon. In the midst of this side wall is a deep recess into which a section of our pavement enters and we follow to the brazen doored entrance to the sacred enclosure. Much of the enclosed space is given up to store houses, to little cells along the walls for the lodging of pilgrims, or to the houses, little less than palaces, where live the priests and their assistants. The one point of supreme interest is, of course, the great temple tower, a high square structure faced with brick, and consisting of eight stories, each smaller than the one below. Towers break the monotony of its sides and on the south, in the center and at the corners, are stairways, protected by stepped walls along their ascent. On the summit is a temple, covered by blue glazed brick, and containing a golden table and couch. We can understand how the Babylonians, knowing little of mountains, assert that its summit reaches to heaven or even rivals it.

Before crossing the street to visit Esagila, the temple of which Etemenanki is the tower, we follow the procession street around the corner of the enclosure and then through the Urash gate to the bridge across the Euphrates, which Nabopolassar erected, a structure some four hundred feet long, resting on seven stone piers of boat form and with their prows pointing up stream. On the other side of the river, the procession street runs on to where in the distance we see the high temple tower of Ezida, Nabu's home in Borsippa. Our guide informs us that there is nothing new to be seen there and we return to Esagila, the "lofty house." For the most famous shrine of our time, the external appearance is distinctly disappointing, another of those square blocks of mud brick and with little adornment, some two hundred and fifty feet long; but the interior compensates. At the entrance is a crude brick altar on which sacrifices are regularly offered while a smaller one of gold is used only for sucklings. We enter the court yard and see on the west, behind a facade marked by mighty towers, the cella of the god Marduk himself, the very center of the empire's religious life. The cedar with which it is covered is almost hidden by the masses of gold and precious stones, drawing attention even from the golden cult statue of the god, of more than mortal size, seated with his right hand on his knee, his long beard sweeping down upon his flounced garment. Before him stands a table, and this, together with the throne and footstool, is of solid gold, the whole weighing no less than eight hundred talents. Here at least is no disappointment. In the next cella is Marduk's consort, Zarpanit, and on the north side that of Ea, the god of the deep. Behind are two chambers,

used for incubation, where the god appears to patients in a dream. Ea sits on a wooden throne, richly carved with figures, such as a fish, a dragon, or a man holding a water vase. Unusual in this temple is the symmetry they have here secured. Again we listen to our guide translating one of the royal records: "I brought before Marduk all conceivable valuables, great superabundance, the product of the mountains, the wealth of the sea, a heavy burden, a sumptuous gift, a gigantic abundance. Ekua, the chamber of Marduk, lord of the gods, I made a gleam like the sun. Its walls I clothed with solid gold instead of clay or chalk, with lapis lazuli and alabaster the temple area. Kahilisir or the door of state, as also the Ezida gate of Esagila, I made bright as the sun."

By this time, we are thoroughly fatigued with our sightseeing and ready for food and rest, but our guide insists that we must still see Epatutilla, the "house of the scepter of life," dedicated to the dread god Ninib. So we visit its triple cella, and see the three deities, Ninib himself, in a hat, and with a vase, from which pours water grasped firmly in both hands, his wife Gula, a nude figure with her arms at her side, and the ape. This last interests us very much, as we have never before seen the like, and we buy one of the little clay figures which represents the animal in a crouching position. Then, too weary even to laugh at the strange figure he makes, we return to our house and to repose.<sup>1</sup>

## American Political Science Review

The February number of the "American Political Science Review" contains the following papers, several of which were read before the Cincinnati meetings of the American Political Science Association: "The Scientific Spirit in Politics," by Jesse Macy; "Pan-Turanism," by T. Lathrop Stoddard; "The Control of Foreign Relations," by Denys P. Myers; "The Department of the Navy," by Robert W. Neeser; and "Obstacles to Municipal Progress," by John A. Lapp. Under "Legislative Notes and Reviews" are treated such topics as "Powers of the Lieutenant Governor," "Direct Legislation in 1916," "Constitutional Conventions," "State Budget Systems," "Economy and Efficiency," and "Absent Voting." There are not only book reviews, but also "News and Notes," giving information of a personal character, of new publications, of international happenings, of municipal affairs, and of the annual meeting of the American Political Science Association. The full list of recent publications of political interest, including books, periodical articles, and government documents, is of much value to the student of political science.

<sup>1</sup> The above sketch is based primarily on the detailed sketch by the leader of the excavations, Koldewey, "The Excavations at Babylon," supplemented by King, "History of Babylon." Whatever life it possesses is due to four days during which Dr. Koldewey most delightfully entertained the writer at the German excavation house.

## Laboratory Methods of Teaching Contemporary History at Columbia University

BY PARKER THOMAS MOON, INSTRUCTOR IN HISTORY IN COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY.

It is no longer necessary to apologize for teaching current topics in history, economics, and civics. Fully cognizant of the difficulties and hazards of the enterprise, the teachers of these three "social sciences" have nevertheless attacked the problem with all the enthusiasm of a confident assurance that the scientific study of our yesterdays and of our to-days is not only justifiable, but supremely necessary and vital, whether it be in the class-room of the secondary school or in the lecture-hall of the university.

I come to you, therefore, not as the crusader to champion the cause of recent history against unbelieving enemies, but rather as the craftsman to explain in the friendly circle of his guild the methods of his work, and to ask for the helpful criticism of his fellow-workers.

**I. ORIGIN.** The use of periodicals and of newspapers as material for the historical study of current topics in the history department at Columbia has been endorsed by a long record of successful achievement. More than seven years have elapsed since the creation of what was picturesquely called the Laboratory of Contemporary History. It was an ambitious undertaking. Files of foreign newspapers were ordered; a number of foreign and domestic periodicals were put on reference; massive work-tables and multitudinous pasteboard filing-boxes were installed. The students were set to work, clipping, filing, sorting, and comparing political items from the newspapers. From those assorted clippings, supplemented by information gleaned from magazines, from foreign newspapers, and from books of reference, bi-monthly reports were compiled, each covering current events in some particular country. Such a report was not merely a scissors-and-paste summary of newspaper items for two months; it was an explanation of those items in their historical setting.

Whether it was due to the inherent attractiveness of the scheme, or to the contagious enthusiasm and sincerity of the instructor,<sup>1</sup> the students in that laboratory, from the first, evinced remarkable interest. I myself had the rare good fortune to be one of those students, and I may say from personal experience that we felt a certain fascination, a real pleasure, in the concreteness and freshness of the work. It was really a laboratory. We were dealing with tangible things—newspaper clippings; we were weighing and sifting historical evidence as the chemist weighs out

his acids and tests their purity. We knew something of the joy of the scientist who after patient peering through the microscope at length discovers a new form of animal life; for were not we also scientists, in our way, observing and describing the living phenomena of history and politics?

To be sure there were critics of the innovation. Mr. Arnold Bennett, led by a traveller's curiosity to visit the laboratory in 1912, gave utterance to the cynical prophecy—"I can hardly conceive a wilder, more fearfully difficult way of trying to acquire the historical sense, than this voyaging through hot, fresh newspapers, nor one more probably destined to failure." The prophecy was false; the cynicism, unjustified. The fundamental idea of the laboratory was not destined to failure. It is still the basis of the course in contemporary history at Columbia.

**II. METHOD.** The laboratory course in contemporary history, which I have had the pleasure of conducting for the past year and a quarter, is now a full-fledged elective, counting as three hours a week, and open to students who have had a year of modern European history. One of the three hours is devoted to lectures—of which, more anon—the other two hours are spent in the laboratory, where the students actually work on their reports and confer informally with the instructor.

The central feature of the course remains, as at the inception of the laboratory, the compilation of bi-monthly reports on current events. Each student selects some country or some special topic, following the bent of his own inclination. One will write the history of British domestic politics during October and November, 1916; another will chronicle the events of two months in the Rumanian theatre of war. Each student subscribes to a good local newspaper, the "New York Times," the "Christian Science Monitor," the "New York Sun," and the "World" are among the best, and systematically cuts out and files away in large envelopes all items bearing on his topic. He is also required to take copious notes from weekly and monthly reviews, in all cases carefully noting the page, date, and title. In preparing a report on current events in England, or in France, the student must painstakingly peruse the files of some British or French newspaper, chiefly for the purpose of making a critical comparison between different accounts of the same events. And always considerable reading in standard histories is required, for the instructor is ever insisting that the study of current topics is of little worth unless constantly connected up with the events of past decades.

By actual experience I have learned that the value of this kind of work with newspapers and periodicals

<sup>1</sup> Professor Carlton J. H. Hayes was in charge of the course during its early years. An article descriptive of the laboratory was read by Professor Hayes before the American Historical Association in December, 1909, and published in the HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE for February, 1910.

is greatly enhanced if unremitting attention be given by the instructor to the following four principles:

(1) Personal supervision. The instructor should be present in the laboratory—or library, as the case may be—at specified hours each week, to make suggestions, to answer questions, and to stimulate interest.

(2) Precise directions. It is necessary to be definite—very definite—in giving directions regarding the length and the formation of the report and the manner of citing authorities in footnotes.

(3) Bibliography. A priceless opportunity will have been neglected if the student is not given some really practical training in the use of bibliography. Many a youth enters college blissfully ignorant of the existence of such a thing as the "Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature," not to speak of the "Book Review Digest." To overcome this inexperience, each student in preparing his essay is required first of all to make a list of recent encyclopedias and of year books, such as the "Annual Register," the "New International Year Book," the "Statesman's Year Book," and the "Almanach de Gotha," indicating the pages in each where information may be found regarding the particular country about which he is to write. Next, he prepares a similar list of magazine articles, with the aid of the "Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature;" the best of these articles are to be read; the others, discarded. Furthermore, he selects what he considers the ten most useful and recent histories dealing with the country under consideration; by actual practice he learns to use the critical bibliographies in such text books as Hayes "Modern Europe," and Hazen "Europe Since 1815;" he discovers the value of the bibliographies in the "Statesman's Year-Book," and in the encyclopedias; the "Times Book Review," the "Book Review Digest," and the comprehensive bibliography of the war by Lange and Berry are all pressed into service. The student is expected to dip into all ten histories, and to do enough reading in them to explain the historical background of his report. This bibliographical work is not merely perfunctory. Students not only learn how to find their way about in a reference library; they begin to regard some of the books as something more than distant acquaintances.

(4) Critical training. There is a tradition at Columbia that the soul of history is a critical spirit—the art of distinguishing, so far as is humanly possible, between the true and the false, between the important and the trivial. The student compiling his report is constantly exhorted to exercise discrimination and judgment. But the critical sense of the college student is too often lethargic. He sees no reason for citing authorities in footnotes, no purpose in comparing parallel accounts, no danger in relying upon newspaper headlines and magazine editorials. He readily sees the point, however, when he inspects my collection of mistakes and absurdities, clipped from supposedly reliable newspapers and periodicals. For example, the "New York Times" on June 28 last, gave the name of the foreign secretary of Great Britain as Earl Grey, apparently oblivious of the

fact that the former governor-general of Canada, and the Liberal minister, Sir Edward Grey, now Viscount Grey, were quite different persons. Again, on February 28, 1916, in the same reliable newspaper, the world-famous Russian foreign minister, M. Sazonoff, was absurdly labelled "Russian premier." Upon another occasion the headline-writer betrayed inexcusable ignorance of the fact that the Prussian "Landtag" is not exactly the same thing as the German "Reichstag."

The instructor may find it worth while to exhibit a few samples of fiction, culled from periodicals and newspapers. Such samples are easy to collect. Many a Mexican revolt has been concocted in a newspaper office, only to be denied a few days later; Pancho Villa, once certainly dead, now lives; the Turkish war minister, Enver Pasha, is assassinated one week and revived the next; a dire revolt in India is authoritatively announced to-day and authoritatively denied to-morrow. The "Independent," of November 22, 1915, prints a personal message from Yuan Shih-kai, assuring America that the Chinese Republic will be maintained; a little later, an official statement declares the whole message to have been "malevolent fabrication."

By citing these evidences of the unreliability of our periodicals and newspapers, have I proved that the teaching of current events must of necessity be hopelessly unscientific? Far from it! Have I not rather demonstrated that in the teaching of current events, where one deals with admittedly mendacious sources, the student will have much more frequent opportunities to display discriminating incredulity than in a course where his reading is largely confined to what he regards as a well-nigh infallible text-book? And, above all, have I not proved the supreme necessity of forewarning the newspaper-readers of the future—who will also be the citizens of the future—against the errors and inventions of an untrustworthy press?

Another method of stimulating the critical spirit is what I perhaps fantastically style the newspaper symposium—the "Periodical" symposium, if you will. Each student is referred to a certain newspaper or periodical for an account of a political event—say the Sarajevo assassination, or the sinking of the "Lusitania," or the death of Francis Joseph. Then in informal conference, with the newspapers before us, we compare the variant versions of the event. As the banqueting philosophers in Plato's symposium each expressed his views in turn, so we allow each newspaper to set forth its opinion. When Francis Joseph died, we found the Parisian daily "Le Matin," denouncing the aged emperor as a fiend "escaped from hell;" the "New York World" regarded him as one of the last specimens of the almost extinct race of divine-right monarchs; the New York "Staats-Zeitung" had only words of praise for his amiable character and of regret for his death. Even with a small number of magazines and newspapers, comparisons of this kind, amply repay the small labor of preparation. They acquaint the student with the merits as well as with the defects and the prejudices of the different periodicals and journals; they give him a



detailed knowledge of the particular event; and they train the critical faculty most effectively.

With these comparisons as concrete illustrations of the kind of critical work he is expected to perform, the student views his report in a new light; he inserts footnotes ungrudgingly; and consequently the majority of the reports are admirably critical as well as conscientious.

III. RESULTS. Respecting the practical results of the laboratory work in current topics—or as we prefer to call it, contemporary history—we have every reason for gratification. Some of the reports, to be sure, are hastily and carelessly done. The poor student we have with us always. Some of the reports betray the exuberance of immaturity; I recall, for instance, a football man who entitled his very bulky report, "Mexico, the Alpha and Omega of Chaos," and prefaced it with a Latin couplet. Glowing perorations sometimes attach themselves to otherwise soberly historical chronicles. The general level of performance, however, is remarkably high. Most of the reports show a degree of carefulness which can hardly be inspired by anything other than a genuine interest in the subject. A few of the best reports are fully on a par with many of the articles printed by standard monthly magazines; in fact, one of our students not long since had his report on Germany accepted for publication by the "Forum."

IV. SYSTEMATIC READING AND LECTURES. Thus far I have dwelt on the central feature of our laboratory work, the painstaking preparation of a report on the historical significance of recent events in some one country. In the course on contemporary history at Columbia it has been found advisable to supplement the laboratory work by required reading, in order to give each student a general knowledge of the recent history of all nations, in addition to his intimate familiarity with the affairs of one nation. About twenty pages are assigned to be read each week, so that the political institutions, the parties, and the principal political and social problems of each country may be studied and discussed in the light of recent history. For many of the countries, just the right sort of a summary will be found in such a book as Hayes "Political and Social History of Modern Europe," vol. II, or Hazen's "Europe Since 1815," or Robinson and Beard, "Outlines of European History, Part II." A few pages in the "Annual Register," the "American Year Book," or the "New International Year Book," or the brief record of political events now published annually by the "Political Science Quarterly," are occasionally required for recent events. Moreover, every student is expected to familiarize himself with the news of the week, and for this purpose some periodical like the "Independent," or the "Literary Digest" is recommended, since even a careful perusal of the daily newspapers leaves in the mind of the average student too chaotic a jumble of unsorted trifles.

It may seem that what with the compilation of a pretentious report, what with readings on the various nations, what with the study of a weekly magazine,

the student will be overwhelmed by the tremendous mass of detail. He will not see the wood for the trees. To avoid this danger, the instructor gives a series of interpretive lectures, one a week, in which he endeavors to seize upon the salient features, the fundamental principles, of present times as some historian in a future age might delineate them. One week the instructor directs the attention of the class to the potent sentiment of nationalism, which has been rudely remaking the map of Europe ever since the Congress of Vienna, and is still at work. The next week, he sketches the rough outlines of the Socialist movement of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. Another hour, he briefly recapitulates the story of the growth of Democracy, and connects it up with current events, with the demand for franchise reform in Prussia, and in England, with Chinese Republicanism, and with American Progressivism. Or again, the lecture will trace the subtle operation of modern imperialism in the Far East.

V. EQUIPMENT. The methods of which I have now completed my description have all of them stood the test of experience. They are certainly practical at Columbia. Nor need the question of equipment stand in the way of the adoption of a laboratory course at other institutions where perchance one lacks the advantages of a large library and plentiful files of domestic and foreign newspapers and periodicals.

One may start out with only a few indispensable reference works for equipment—an up-to-date encyclopedia, a "Who's Who," a "Statesman's Year Book," and a good history of recent times. Let us add a few good wall-maps, inasmuch as constant reference to the map is necessary to correct the amazing ignorance of most college men regarding geography. With this modest equipment, the laboratory course would depend largely upon the newspapers and periodicals purchased by the students individually; clippings therefrom would be all the more carefully filed away for future reference, and the reports, although based upon limited sources, might still be critical and illuminating. If the appropriation is larger, a file of the "New York Times," with its quarterly index should be started, the weekly magazine of the London "Times" ordered through some good bookseller, and a small but usable historical library created, comprising recent histories of the United States, of Great Britain, of France, of Germany, etc., as well as books on international affairs, on Socialism, on Imperialism, and on the war.

If a princely sum is available, then the ideal equipment may be gradually acquired. In addition to the works already mentioned one should receive the "Congressional Record," and copies of all laws passed by Congress. The proceedings of the British Parliament and the "Journal Officiel," of France, are costly, but valuable. All the standard year-books, and new historical works should be added as they appear. In purchasing war-books, discrimination is preferable to prodigality. Copies of the British White Paper and of the other nations' vari-colored apologies for the war should be placed on reference;

"Nelson's History of the War" is very useful; and the London "Times" serial "History of the War" is a veritable storehouse of historical information. The "Review of Reviews," the "World's Work," the "New York Times Current History" (monthly), the "North American Review," the "Political Science Quarterly," and perhaps other American periodicals should be kept on file; among British periodicals, the "Contemporary Review," the "Nineteenth Century," the "Fortnightly," and the "Liberal Magazine" suggest themselves as invaluable; in French, "La Revue Politique et Parlementaire" is very useful indeed; German periodicals are at present not allowed to pass the blockade, and the new "Mexican Review" might be added for a roseate view of conditions in our sister republic.

As for newspapers, rather than multiplying American journals, I should have in addition to the "New York Times" (with index), the "London Times" (also with index), the great French daily, "Le Temps;" the Italian daily, "Corriere della Sera;" and the admirable Latin-American journal, "La Prensa." The Austrian "Fremdenblatt," and German papers like "Vorwaerts" or the "Frankfurter Zeitung," would of course be valuable were they available.

The laboratory method of teaching current topics and contemporary history has this advantage, that even when reduced to lowest terms it may still be immensely interesting and educative. One may simply require the students to compile a report such as I have described, on some current topic, in connection with the general course in European history. Even when thus simply conducted, the experiment will, I am confident, be richly rewarded by intensified interest in the general course. Then the instructor may gradually expand the work, adding informal conferences, or introducing lectures, or requiring regular reading.

Unless my eyes are strangely deceived, the future is full of promise for this kind of work. Our colleges are just beginning to realize—and as yet only vaguely—the possibilities of instruction in current topics and the use of periodicals, not only for history, but also for politics, for economics, and for the foreign languages. At Columbia the teachers of politics and of economics already do some work with current topics, and the German department has discovered that a practical reading knowledge of the language may be acquired by reading German newspapers and periodicals as well as by studying Goethe or Schiller. Am I unduly optimistic in believing that the day will soon come when these various departments of the college will co-operate in conducting the laboratory of the future; in which the same newspapers, magazines, and recent books will be used by the historian, by the economist, by the political theorist, and by the teacher of modern languages, each with his special interests; a laboratory in which the college man will learn to apply his theories and his knowledge of the past to the living problems of the present.

As members of the teaching guild, we must ever be mindful that the college men of to-day are the citizens of to-morrow. This may be a truism, but it is a truth we too often forget. Upon us lies the responsibility of teaching the coming generation to approach its social and political problems with a calm and critical judgment, with a helpful knowledge of the past, and with a sincere interest in the present, and thus to perpetuate and ennoble our democracy. With a humble realization of this heavy responsibility, I have ventured to lay before you the methods and results of our laboratory work at Columbia, in the confident hope that by your criticism and suggestions we may learn more worthily to fulfil our duty to the future.<sup>2</sup>

<sup>2</sup> A paper read before the History Teachers' Association of the Middle Atlantic States and Maryland, December 2, 1916.

## Changing Emphasis in European History in the High Schools of California

BY GEROLD ROBINSON, LELAND STANFORD JUNIOR UNIVERSITY, CAL.\*

Whether or not the tendency toward increasing emphasis on modern history at the expense of ancient and medieval history is a wholesome one, this tendency is certainly widespread among the high schools of California. If information obtained from eighty-three high schools forms an adequate basis for generalization, the process of uniting ancient and medieval history in a single year's course is well under way, English history as a separate subject is losing

its grip, and modern history of pronouncedly social and economic type is the new El Dorado of the text-book makers.

From the figures that follow it will be very apparent that history teaching in California has come out of that Egypt of self-satisfaction in which the Committee of Seven left it, and is seeking a new "Promised Land." It is the purpose of this paper to show how far along this new journey the high schools under consideration have proceeded, what has been the manner of their traveling, and whither, in the estimation of the teachers themselves, the road is likely to lead.

\* Mr. Robinson is an undergraduate in Leland Stanford Junior University, and his report was prepared in connection with the Teachers' Course in History.—ARLEY B. SHOW.

The facts and opinions herewith presented were gathered from eighty-three responses to a questionnaire sent to all the high schools of California having an enrollment in excess of one hundred. The principals or teachers of these schools were asked to write on the following topics:

"(1) *Courses* now offered in European history; (2) *Important changes* in European history courses in recent years, with *reasons* for such changes; (3) *Other ways* in which history teaching in your school shows tendency toward change as to *subject-matter, emphasis and proportion*, and so on." These being the topics under discussion, such subjects as civics, economics, and ancient, English and American history are touched upon only incidentally, and the discussion for the most part is confined to the European field about as treated within the limits of the standard course in medieval and modern history.

Although sixty schools report courses in medieval and modern European history conforming, at least, approximately to the standards set by the Committee of Seven, the trend of the times is undoubtedly away from, rather than towards uniformity of program. In the answers to the questionnaire thirty-five changes of program were described, and almost without exception these changes were in the nature of departure from the Committee's four-block system.

#### EMPHASIS ON THE MODERN PERIOD.

The tendency most in evidence is that toward increasing emphasis on the modern period of European history. Eighteen schools now devote more time to modern history than was possible within the limits of the blocks as defined by the committee. Of this number, sixteen give one year, and two give more than a year to the modern period. One school from the group of sixteen retains the ancient, and medieval and modern blocks, but replaces the third block with a course in "Modern Europe" open to second and third year students taking history for the first time. The remaining fifteen schools of this group cover the ancient and medieval periods in a single year. Five of them give no definite information as to the chronological limit of this first course, five begin the work in modern history with the year 1500 or thereabouts, and with the other five the break comes in the time of Louis XIV. Not all the changes incident to the establishment of these courses were described in the answers to the questionnaire, but in at least eight cases the change of program has involved the abandonment of English history as a separate course—a subject to be discussed later.

Of the two schools that give more than a year to the modern period, one has replaced ancient, medieval and modern and English history with a year of ancient and a year and a half of medieval and modern history, and the other offers, in addition to the regular ancient and medieval and modern courses, a half year's work in the "European Background of American History."

It should be added that four schools not yet con-

sidered have combined ancient and medieval history in a single year's course without expanding modern history beyond the half year formerly allotted to it.

The changes in the program of studies already actually effected are hardly more significant than those in prospect. In eight schools the decision has already been reached to adopt in the near future the two-year course in European history, in three other cases the move is being seriously considered, and still another school is about to substitute for the ancient, medieval and modern, and English blocks a *three years' course* in the history of Europe as a whole.

Even where a rearrangement of the program of studies is neither completed nor in contemplation, there is a strong tendency to shift the emphasis within the old blocks to the more modern aspects of the subjects. Statements as to emphasis and proportion vary and overlap in every possible way and any attempt to summarize the results cannot be overwhelmingly successful. However, it may be said that in twenty schools which have not yet forsaken the old blocks, there is a conscious emphasis upon the modern period; twelve answers tell of special efforts to relate the past to the present; and, at the apex of the whole movement, nineteen schools give special attention to current events. Again it must be said that any one school may appear in all three of the groups just mentioned.

A few practical suggestions are offered as to how the shifting emphasis within the old blocks may be accomplished: this, for instance, "Certain topics formerly taught in the second year have been put into the Ancient history course; such topics as Feudalism, the Crusades, the Rise of the Universities;" and again, "Beginning this year, the ancient history work will be carried to about the twelfth century, in order to allow more time for eighteenth and nineteenth century European history and also for present-day tendencies;" and lastly, in a school with a large library, "ancient history is to be completed in three quarters, and the last quarter is to be devoted to library reference work in medieval history.

In the matter of establishing relations between past and present, two teachers follow approximately the same method. To quote from one of them: "We try to select a list of topics which are vital to present-day living, *e. g.*, city government, the lot of the common people, . . . relation between capital and labor, public health, etc., etc., and we have the students take notes in their notebooks of points of interest under these topics. They start these notebooks in ancient history and carry them right through medieval and modern history and American history. This gives at all times an opportunity to make comparisons and to note the progress of man along the several lines of endeavor outlined."

Many of the teachers who are concerned with the problems of relationship also have something to say regarding the value of the study of current events and the methods of handling the material. Six schools devote one day a week throughout one year

to this work, one extends the work through two years; four use the "Literary Digest," and two "The Independent" as a text-book, and one offers a special course in current history.

Bringing together all the data obtained as to the progress of the movement for modern emphasis, we find that eighteen schools have changed their courses of study with the object of gaining time for modern history, twenty other schools have accomplished the transfer of emphasis by a redistribution of time within the standard blocks, and nineteen schools have found time for the study of current events.

Many of the teachers enlarge upon their reasons for emphasizing the modern period, but only a few of their statements can be quoted. One teacher says: "I try to retain only that matter which seems to have a bearing on the future . . . I intend this year, more than ever before, to hasten to the Europe of the last fifty years. So far as the experience and ability of my students permit, I mean to make this a modern European year"—and all this is to be accomplished within the limits of the old blocks. Another teacher writes, regarding the adoption of the two-year course in European history: "The new system gives the student more knowledge of the affairs of Europe to-day; he is able to read comprehensively in magazines and newspapers." Another says, "Our students want what seems vital and present. They do not care so much what happened a thousand years ago. The definition of scholarship seems to be changing." A single statement summarizes the ideas back of the whole movement toward the modern and the practical: to quote, "We believe that history work [in high schools] should be primarily for those who do not go to college, and that we should present those things which most intimately touch the life of a citizen . . . There is altogether too much ignorance regarding the economic and social changes now in progress, which are so closely related to the life of the voters of a democratic country."

#### IN PROTEST.

In sharp contrast with all this are several earnest protests against the modernizing tendency. The head of a large history department deplores the disposition of his teachers to place great emphasis on recent history. He says, "While the writer would welcome more time for recent modern history, he feels medieval history to be so important to an understanding of the development of our present institutions, that the relative time devoted to it should not be greatly diminished." Another teacher writes, "Students find medieval history hard enough without beginning it in the middle of the ninth year," and adds, "It is true that the medieval and modern course is too crowded: tell us some way out of it."

From another large high school comes the following: "The actual and practical results of the effort to give more attention to modern European history is to fall back upon the old and condemned plan of a weak and worthless 'general' course for the

early period of European history." Another protesting teacher wants to carry the fight into the enemy's country: he says, "Personally I am hoping to see some day the properly equipped history workshop or laboratory, with all that that would mean. If high school teachers would work consistently to that end, there would be less need for concern about whether the European history course should begin with 800, or 1500, or 1648, and more would be accomplished in the end."

#### SOCIO-ECONOMIC EMPHASIS.

Passing now from the modernizing tendency in general to consider the growth of socio-economic emphasis, we find that in eighteen institutions special stress is laid upon this aspect of history and that in many instances the establishment of new courses in sociology, economics or civics is either accomplished or under consideration. One teacher writes, "I try to emphasize especially the struggle between labor and capital, because it is along this line that our government is developing—in fact, it is here that the world-problem lies." In another large school the climax of the movement has been reached; to quote: "We now call our history department the Department of Social Sciences, because ultimately our four years' course will include two years of historical social science and two years of civics, economics and sociology . . . [Already, with the transition partially accomplished] we are attracting many new students to the department and are giving them work that is more worth while than the old courses."

In the fight for a place in the high school program, sociology, economics and civics, like modern history, find English history their weakest opponent. Six schools have substituted a half year of economics and a half year of civics for the traditional year of English history, and four of this number now give American history in the junior year and follow it in the fourth year with the new work in economics and civics. Two schools have replaced English history with a full year's course in economic and industrial history, another divides the third year evenly between English history and economics, and still another makes room for a full year of economics by allowing but half a year each to ancient history and English history. Finally one large school gains time for economic and social history by offering, as an alternative to ancient and medieval and modern history, a two years' course in the history of Europe divided as follows: early Europe, one year; modern Europe, one-half year; England, one-half year.

The defense for these changes is more often a protest against a disproportionate amount of time devoted to English history than a plea for economics or civics. Any change that relieves the pressure on United States history by removing civics to another year seems doubly welcome.

### THE CASE OF "GENERAL HISTORY."

The fear sometimes expressed that the pressure of "practical" subjects would result in a reinstatement of "general history" seems to be groundless, since only four high schools offer the subject. In one case general history has been substituted for English history "for the benefit of those students taking business courses, or preparing for engineering or scientific courses." Another school has substituted general history for ancient and medieval and modern, because "history is not worth one-fourth a student's time unless he wishes to specialize in the subject." The work in social and economic history seems in some measure to take the place of general history, and one teacher distinctly states that her course in commercial and industrial history is intended to serve as a short course in the ancient and medieval and modern fields.

### A PLACE FOR ENGLISH HISTORY.

Through all these changes English history has suffered most. In eighteen schools the separate course in this subject has been crowded out completely in favor of economics or civics or modern history or some combination of these subjects, and in one case in favor of general history.

Seven teachers volunteered information as to how they provide within the new courses for the study of English history. One instructor lays emphasis upon England's part in medieval and modern history, two others also study at length England's connection with the American colonies, and in four schools time is found to emphasize English history as a part of a two-year course in the history of Europe. At a glance all this may appear to be in harmony with the recommendations of the Committee of Five, but it must be remembered that these teachers expect to find a place for English history in a *two years'* European history course, and not in a three-year course as the committee recommended.

That English history is not everywhere on the downward road may be proved by the fact that in two schools a differentiated course in this field has recently been added to the program; one of the teachers concerned says that the addition was made "with the idea of allowing students to study the European country most important to America, more intensively than was possible in the medieval and modern course." Another schoolmaster states that the English and medieval and modern courses are now given every year instead of alternately as formerly, due to increasing demand.

### CONCLUSION.

In closing, the statement made in the beginning regarding the growth of emphasis on modern history and socio-economics may be repeated, and it may fairly be added that the ultimate goal of the movement is a program something like this:

1st year—Early European history.

2d year—Modern European history, with special attention to the background of United States history.

3d year—United States history and current events.

4th year—Economics or sociology or civics or some combination of these three subjects. The last two years to be required of all students.

Arguments for and against this program form a part of the everlasting discussion regarding the merits of the "present and practical" as distinguished from the "distant and cultural." No man living can hope to still this tempest with a word, or with a book of words. Still it may not be out of place to ask a few questions that cannot be answered without some realization of what is involved in the proposed redistribution of time. Such questions as these must be faced: Where within the last three centuries is there to be found a national culture comparable to that of Greece in its influence? What is the comparative importance to us of Roman and British imperialism, of the barbarian invasions and the Napoleonic wars? Is divine-rights-absolutism more important than feudalism? Are the Roman Church, the Holy Roman Empire, the Renaissance and the Reformation of small importance as compared with Nationalism, Democracy and the Industrial Revolution?

### American Historical Review

The leading article in the January number of the "American Historical Review" is Professor George L. Burr's "The Freedom of History," the presidential address delivered at the Cincinnati meeting of the American Historical Association. Mr. Herbert C. Bell contributes a paper upon "The West India Trade Before the American Revolution;" Mr. Victor Coffin writes upon "Censorship and Literature Under Napoleon I;" and Mr. Carl R. Fish upon "Social Relief in the Northwest During the Civil War." The original documents printed in this number consist of reports in the Senate in 1804 upon the Breckenridge Bill for the government of Louisiana. These reports, contributed by Everett S. Brown, are taken from the private journals of Senator William Plumer, of New Hampshire, two volumes of which are in the Library of Congress, and one volume in the State Library of New Hampshire. The three volumes cover the period, October, 1808, to April, 1807. The review pages show twenty-five books on American history, and only eight on all other fields of history. There are the usual interesting and valuable personal and literary notices. The annual list of doctoral dissertations in history now in progress at the chief American universities appears in this number of the "Review."

## Newark's 250th Anniversary Celebration: Its Historic Features

BY DANIEL CHAUNCEY KNOWLTON, PH.D., CENTRAL HIGH SCHOOL, NEWARK, N. J.

### CHARACTER OF THE PROGRAM.

We have become accustomed in recent years to national and State celebrations stretching over long periods of time, but there is something quite unique and out of the ordinary in a civic celebration of five months' duration. With the last day of October, 1916, the city of Newark, N. J., brought to a close the celebration of the two hundred and fiftieth anniversary of the founding of the city by Robert Treat and his little band of Puritan emigrants. From May 1, when a salvo of guns, the ringing of bells and the blowing of whistles announced the opening of the celebration until the last episode in the program was over, there was no apparent diminution of interest on the part of the citizens in these commemorative exercises. A city like Newark, with a past stretching far back to the days of the Puritan pioneer and located in a region so closely identified with our national life ought, and in point of fact does furnish an unusual amount of material of a character to stimulate local pride and patriotic interest in connection with a celebration of this character. The municipal authorities perhaps appreciated this in setting aside a period of such length for this particular celebration. The problem presented was not merely that of selecting material from the past, but of emphasizing those aspects of the city's development which would awaken civic pride and develop that community spirit so desirable in a truly great city. The problem was the more difficult of solution in view of the apparently revolutionary changes which have swept the life of the city since the days of its Puritan forebears. A modern center of industry and commerce with a cosmopolitan population drawn from all quarters of the globe does not lend itself readily to projects of this character. To properly interest the community every element in the body politic must be aroused to activity; every organ and every part must be made to function. This may explain the varied character of the program, and the apparent deviation from the purely historic which at times marked the course of the exercises. It is a far cry from the erection of a statue commemorating the landing of Robert Treat and his companions to holding games where athletes from all parts of the country strive together in friendly rivalry on field and track; it may be difficult to see just where a parade of the Ancient and Honorable Order of Elks

finds a place in such a celebration, but who can say but that this and other features of a similar character did not serve a useful purpose in emphasizing the manifold activities of the city, and in enabling its citizens to appreciate its true place in the world of to-day?



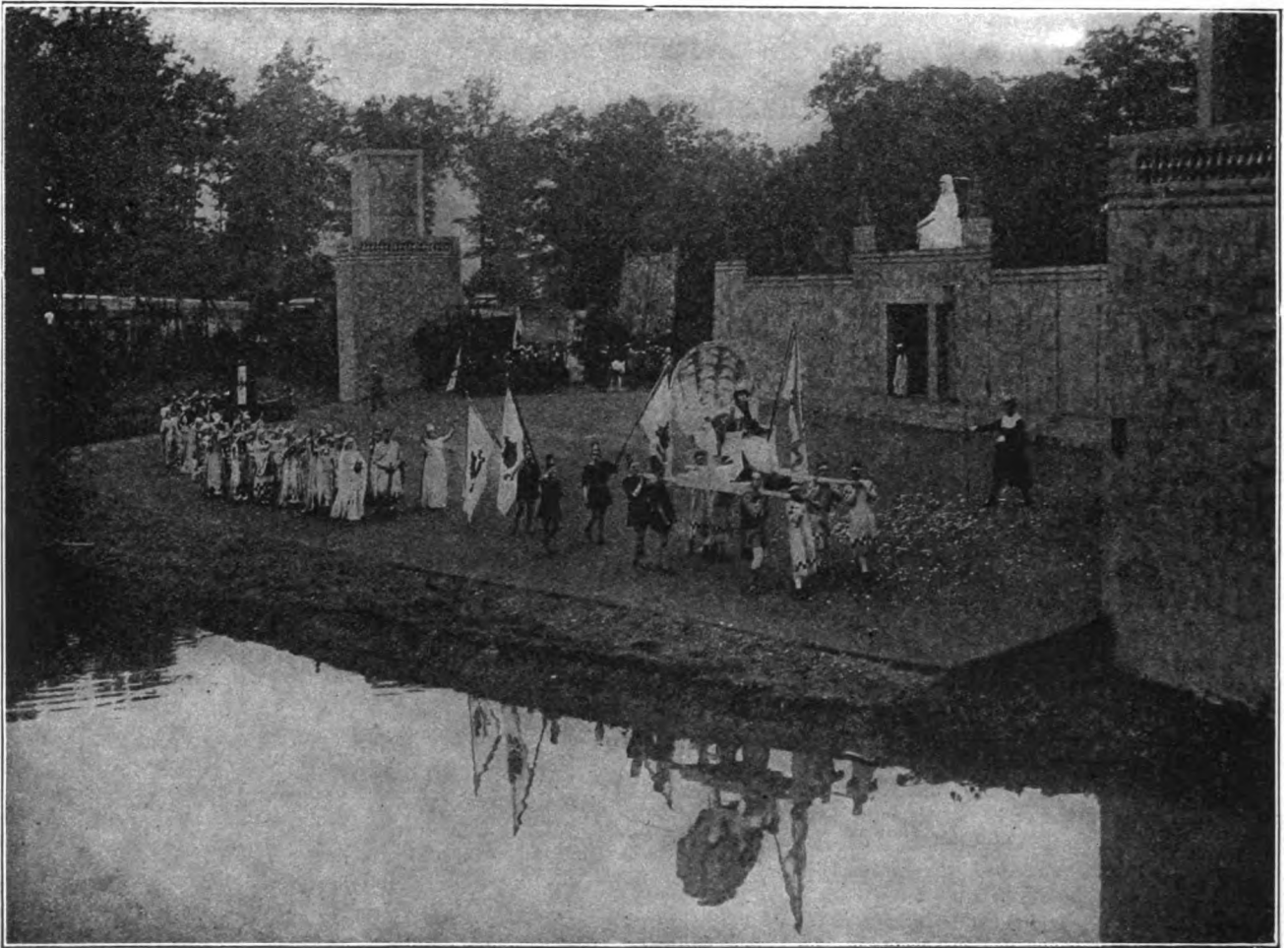
**250th ANNIVERSARY CELEBRATION  
NEWARK NEW JERSEY  
MAY - OCTOBER - 1916  
NEWARK'S \$1000 PRIZE POSTER**

Copyright, 1915, by Committee of One Hundred.

### THE GENESIS OF THE CELEBRATION.

The interest displayed by the citizen body in carrying out the elaborate program planned by their committee which was known as the Committee of One Hundred was the culmination of a series of efforts stretching over the ten years immediately preceding the celebration. It is very doubtful whether the same enthusiasm and the same spirit of co-operation would have manifested itself had it not been for this pre-





THE NEWARK MASQUE—THE SPIRIT OF NEWARK

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paratory work. Several things may be cited as contributing to this final result, not the least of which was the educational campaign initiated by the Newark Public Library, through its efficient head, Mr. John Cotton Dana. The interest in all things pertaining to the city, which was stimulated by this institution was still further conserved when the library authorities prevailed upon Mr. Frank Urquhardt, of the "Newark Call," to prepare two pamphlets covering Newark's entire history (1904, 1906). These were written in such a way as to interest the boys and girls of the public schools. The Board of Education was now prevailed upon to introduce the study of Newark into the schools. A course was therefore arranged covering its geography, industries, history and government—a comparatively easy task in view of the previous activity of the Library in gathering material. This was put in permanent form by the school authorities in a volume entitled, "Newark Study." A course was also prepared for the high schools; this took the form of a study of municipal problems, and was based upon a series of pamphlets dealing with the police system, city cleaning, city planning, etc., etc.; in fact, the city of Newark may be counted as one

of the pioneers in this field among the great cities of the East. About this time, 1910, a city planning commission was appointed. Although it was unable to point to any considerable achievement aside from the publication of a report, it directed a more general attention to the city and its problems. The following year, 1911, the Schoolmen's Club of the city erected the first of a series of tablets commemorating the more striking episodes in Newark's history. This movement would not have aroused the interest which it did, had it not been for an arrangement which the club made with the Board of Education, by which the boys and girls in the schools were given the opportunity of contributing to a penny fund for the erection of these tablets. A special day had by this time been set apart in the schools for emphasizing the significance of Newark (1909), and "Newark Day," as it was called, was selected for the erection of the tablet and the collection of the pennies. These tablets have cost on an average \$150 apiece, and in each case the bulk of the expense has been borne by the children. As was perhaps appropriate for the first venture of this kind, they succeeded to mark the home of John Catlin, the first schoolmaster in Newark. They have



since marked the original lot which his fellow-citizens set apart for Robert Treat, and the home of Moses Combs, a revolutionary patriot, and the founder of the leather industry.

Within this same period, thanks to the generosity of Amos Van Horn, a successful business man who sought to give back to the city some of the wealth which it had helped to create, two handsome statues were erected, the one representing Washington as he was about to take leave of his army at Rocky Hill near Princeton, and the other of Lincoln, the work of Gustave Borglum, the well-known sculptor. With the work launched by the Schoolmen's Club, the city was already in a fair way to fix for all time the great episodes connected with its past.

To re-enforce these efforts, the Newark Public Library began the publication in 1912 of a monthly journal known as the "Newarker," and its staff devoted themselves heart and soul to the exploitation of the city. It may, therefore, fairly be said that the ground had been thoroughly prepared for the crowning efforts of the past year to fittingly celebrate the rounding out of two centuries and a half of civic life. Little difficulty was experienced in securing the needed funds, the citizens contributing \$250,000, \$1,000 for each year of its history, in addition to the \$1,500,000 to be spent on the memorial building. Several citizens were stimulated to do something on their own account—a spirit which was shared by many societies who vied with each other in honoring themselves and their city.

A celebration of this character arouses interest and functions primarily in connection with those incidents which center about its past. It is from them that the

community draws its deepest inspiration, and it is to them that it looks for results of an abiding character. This was realized at the very outset when the judges in the poster contest awarded the prize of \$1,000 to the now familiar poster of Robert Treat setting foot upon the shores of the Passaic at the head of his little band of pilgrims. The episode was made famous throughout the country by the issue of thousands of poster stamps.

#### THE EPHEMERAL VS. THE PERMANENT FEATURES OF THE CELEBRATION.

There were features of this celebration which were essentially ephemeral in character; there were others which will always remain to convey their lesson of patriotic endeavor, and to serve as incentives to future citizens. To the first group belong the various meetings, festivals and parades, the industrial exhibit, the school exhibit and the great pageant; to the latter, the numerous tablets, and statues and the proposed memorial building for which the city bonded itself to the amount of \$1,500,000.

The city was enriched during the course of the celebration by at least five commemorative tablets, three groups of statuary and a magnificent replica of the famous equestrian statue by Verocchio of the Condottiere Bartolommeo Colleoni.

#### THE ERECTION OF TABLETS.

On May 10 the Congregational Conference of New Jersey meeting in Newark, unveiled a tablet to the memory of the founders of the community who were of the Congregational faith. This same date witnessed the dedication of three monuments made possible by the generosity of the entire citizen body acting



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NEWARK PAGEANT—ROBERT TREAT ADDRESSING HIS FOLLOWERS AT THE FOUNDING OF NEWARK, 1666

through their Committee of One Hundred. One of these marks the actual landing place of Robert Treat and his followers, and stands in the neighborhood of the Park Place Terminal—the Jersey outlet of the great McAdoo tunnel system. It is a monolith showing the two founders in low relief on the southern face, gazing down at a spring of water, which bubbles up to sate the weary traveler. At the top is a scene of the landing carved in relief and extending about all four sides. The other face carried the inscription, and gives the names of the sixty-four signers of the Fundamental Agreements—the founders. The second of these marks the site of the town's market place, and commemorates the bridging of the rivers. It is in the form of an isle of safety with large electroliers, and is located near the Newark Library. On the east face a Puritan is carved in relief; on the west, and facing the mountains, is an Indian. The inscriptions run as follows:

*East Face.*

The bridging of the rivers eastward and the rude road built across the marsh was an enterprise of patriotic citizens, an epoch-making event. It awoke the industries and made the present city possible.

*West Face.*

The founders set aside the park nearby as the town's market place. Never has it been put to any use other than for the common good. To the north and westward the Indians lingered, as if reluctant to depart.

The third of these monuments, that on Branford Place, marks four interesting episodes in the city's history as the inscriptions indicate. These run as follows:

*East Face.*

The first church and training place were located just below this spot beginning at Broad Street. The founders, one by one, were laid to rest behind the church, from whence their bones were removed to Fairmount Cemetery in 1887-'89.

*South Face.*

The ground eastward at church or court house was long the rallying place for the people in times of danger and in moments of popular uprising. It was the town's centre; its citadel. There the "Town's Mind" was fixed on all great questions.

*North Face.*

In the second church building close by the original one the first commencement of Princeton College was held, in 1748, when six students were awarded diplomas. Many of those graduated while the college was in Newark were leaders in the war for American independence.

*West Face.*

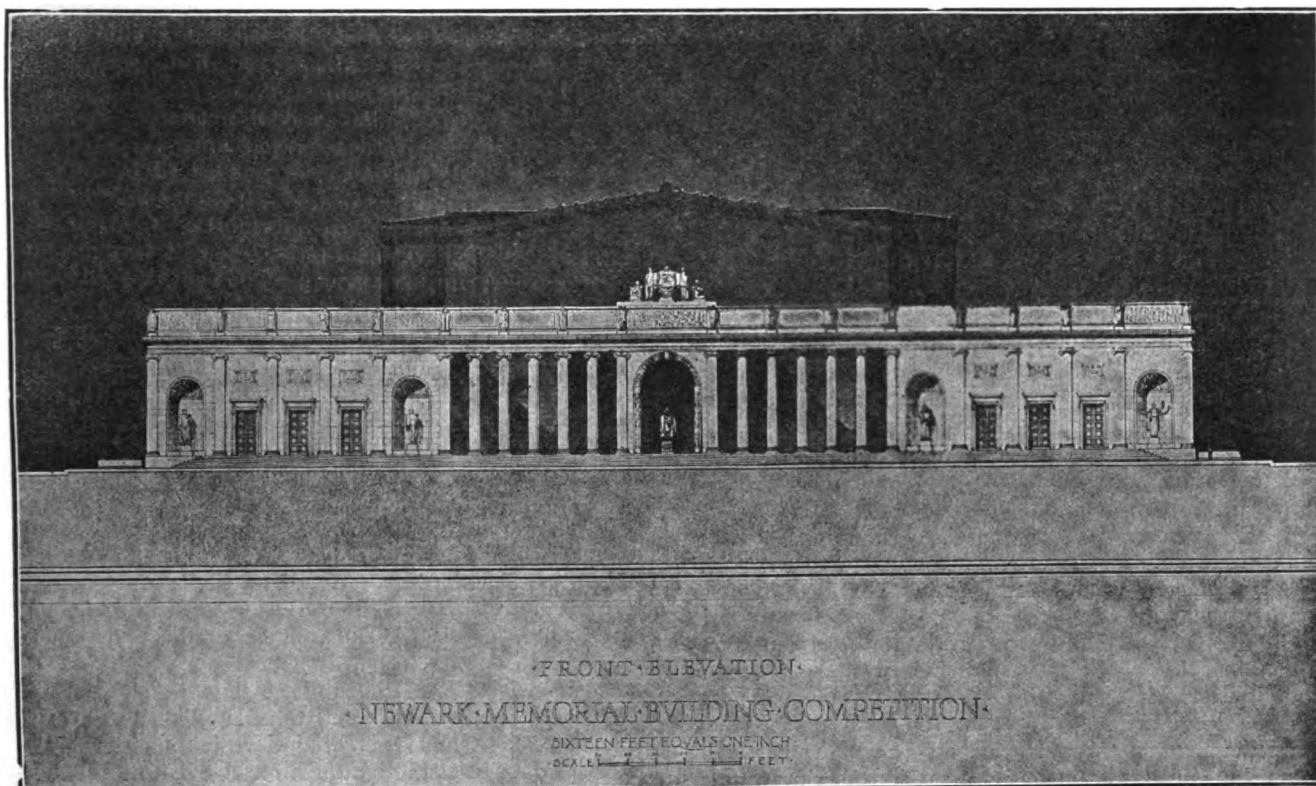
The children of the first generation, when grown, soon turned their faces westward, and took up land near the mountain. Later, others settled still further west and northward, gradually occupying Essex County and beyond. Newark may truly be called "Mother of Towns."

On May 20, the pupils of the South Side High School, "feeling that their location in the southern end of the city laid upon them this pleasant duty," erected a tablet on Divident Hill, which with the Weequahic stream marked the boundary between Newark and the older settlement of Elizabethtown. This tablet purchased with funds furnished partly by the gen-



THE NEWARK PAGEANT—ARRIVAL OF GENERAL WASHINGTON

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FRONT ELEVATION OF THE NEWARK MEMORIAL BUILDING Copyright by The Committee of One Hundred

eral organization of the school and partly by a voluntary collection, bears the following inscription:

"Before the coming of the white man this hill and the nearby stream marked the boundary between the lands of the Hackensack and the Raritan tribes of the Lenni-Lenape. May 20, 1668, representatives of Newark and Elizabeth gathered here and fixed the same boundary to separate the two young settlements. The stream called by the Indians, Weequahic, was thereafter known as Bound Creek, and this eminence was named Divident Hill."

The Daughters of the American Revolution took advantage of the celebration to mark the site of the training place established in 1669, "and used for the purpose at city call to defend the rights and liberties of our country."

The Barringer High School and the Newark Academy also seized the opportunity when interest was keen in local history, to mark in the one case the home of Moses Hedden, the Revolutionary patriot, and in the other, the site of the original academy building which was burned by the British in 1780, when they directed a raid against Newark from New York. The last of these tablets was dedicated by the Schoolmen's Club who selected Lincoln's stop in Newark on his way to the capital in 1861 as an incident worthy of a permanent record.

From some points of view the acquisition of the Colleoni statue, the gift of Mr. Christian Feigenspan, was the crowning episode of this character, heralded as it was far and wide throughout the country and

possessing such deep significance in its relation to the artistic and aesthetic future of the municipality. It is located in one of the most attractive sections of the city—a most impressive sight to the beholder.

One of the greatest enterprises connected with these commemorative exercises was the raising of funds for the memorial building, the selection and acquisition of a proper site, and the planning and construction of the building. The most difficult question is that of determining what purposes shall be served by the building. It is probable that some part of it will serve as an art museum and other portions given over to a community theatre and an auditorium. It is barely possible that it may house the Newark Museum Association now cared for by the public library authorities.

When we consider the more transient features of the celebration such as the exercises of Founders' Day, the industrial exhibit, the school parade, the pageant and the school exhibit we are more and more impressed with the essential unity and complementary character of the program. The stone and bronze were simply the embodiment in more permanent form of this same civic patriotism and lofty idealism which found their momentary expression in the form of pageant, parade, and exhibit. The one expression would have been incomplete without the other. The bronze and stone will therefore do more than simply remind the passerby of the particular episode commemorated. To those who took an active part in these events they will not only bring back that par-

ticular episode of the celebration and what lies behind it in the more distant past, but will do much to keep alive that community spirit which permeated the entire celebration.

#### *The Pageant.*

The city's past was perhaps most vividly brought before the eyes of her citizens in the pageant. It was as if some good fairy had waved her magic wand and had breathed life and flesh about these names inscribed in bronze or these personalities portrayed in stone. This feature of the program illustrates the characteristic to which reference has just been made. Barring the masque itself, there was not a single episode in the spectacle which was not marked in an appropriate manner by boulder or tablet and that too in many cases as a part of the celebration as has been already noted. The preparations for this were most elaborate in character stretching over weeks and months and had been committed into the hands of experts.

Mr. Henry Hadley wrote the music and Mary Porter Beegle directed the dancing. There were four performances, each of which was attended by over forty thousand people. The spectacle was staged in the open at one end of a natural amphitheatre in Weequahic Park. The spectators looked across a lagoon onto a spacious stage, large enough to allow of great freedom of action to the four thousand persons who participated in the performance. In many cases the roles of Newark's famous citizens were taken by their lineal descendants, lending added interest to the spectacle and giving it an even stronger touch of realism. The three movements as they were designated, which constituted the historic portion of the performance represented three periods in the city's history. The first of these covered the century and a quarter which elapsed between the settlement of the city and the outbreak of the Revolution; the second mirrored "the vision of that mighty discontent. . . . that lashed the land to flame," and closed with the burning of Newark Academy and the arrest of Justice Hedden. The third opened with the visit of LaFayette and pictured in rapid succession the great national movements in which the city had participated laying special emphasis upon the rise of Newark's industries. The concluding movement was in the nature of a masque in which the city was portrayed in a life and death struggle with the evil spirits of Greed, Strife and Ignorance, striving with all her might to maintain the old Puritan ideals which she had inherited from pre-revolutionary days. These were impersonated in the "Puritan Spirit," who constantly reminds fair Newark of her past. As she is confronted by the first shipload of emigrants from the shores of Europe, the spirit cries, "But these of alien life and dissonant faith, shall we receive them? Shall they dwell with me where I have reared my walls against the world?" The Watcher makes answer:

"None comes so alien that he brings not here  
High vows and golden memories; and these  
Are thine and Newark's for a mightier day."

In the successive national groups which now appear dressed in their native costumes may be recognized

famous characters in history. The interest aroused by this part of the pageant was the more keen in view of the fact that the actors were recruited from the particular nationality whose past was thus commemorated. In conclusion the Puritan Spirit acknowledges the contribution which these have made to the world's ideals and exclaims "I see my city richer for their high traditions and immortal names."

Unfortunately no effort was made in the industrial exhibit to contrast present with past and thus drive home the lessons taught by history. The products of the various industries were simply martialled in such a way as to impress the eye of the visitor with the great manufacturing interests of the community.

#### THE SCHOOLS AND THE CELEBRATION.

The committee of arrangements, realizing the educational possibilities of the celebration planned a school exhibit and a school parade. Reference has already been made to one phase of the exhibit in the December number of this magazine. This very small fraction of the exhibit was typical of the unique character of the display. The object sought was not alone to present the work now being done in the schools, with special emphasis upon the methods pursued, but also to show in graphic fashion the steps by which these results had been attained. The Board of Education spent hundreds of dollars in placing this historical data in attractive form for the visitor. The record there was an enviable one and one of which the citizens had reason to be proud with a high school system dating back to 1838, an evening school system in 1855, a technical school founded in 1855, and evening high schools established in 1890.

So impressive was the exhibit that the city authorities considered the advisability of making it permanent and housing it in some public building. Its very size, filling as it did, 55 rooms, not counting hall and corridor space, in the South Side High School, made it difficult to secure the necessary accommodations and the project was abandoned.

The historic and civic spirit were very much in evidence in the school parade in which all the educational institutions of the city participated, both public and private. Each school had from three to five hundred boys and girls in line, making a grand total of 15,000 and representing four high schools, 53 elementary schools and 25 parochial schools, besides the Fawcett School of Industrial Arts, The Newark Technical School, and the Newark City Home. Each contingent wore a uniform, preference being given to costumes of a historic character. It was a unique sight to see filing past a squad of miniature Revolutionary soldiers or Robert Treats or Puritan maidens. One high school formed the stars and stripes by a dexterous use of colors. Several floats were prepared, some allegorical in character, others historical. One of the most interesting of these was a model of the first school house, with the schoolmaster standing at the door ringing his bell.

Mention should also be made of a prize essay contest conducted under the auspices of the New York "Times." Prizes in the form of silver medals and

engraved certificates were offered to the boys and girls of the public schools for the best essays based upon a series of articles appearing in the "Times" and describing Newark's history.

Various days were set apart for special commemorative services. The opening exercises on May 1st consisted of addresses of an historic character. This was also true of Founders' Day, which as its name implies was given over to a recital of the deeds of Newark's great ones. Appropriate addresses on these occasions were delivered by men like Justice Swayze, Governor James P. Fielder, Ex-Governor Franklin Murphy and Hon. Marcus H. Holcomb, governor of Connecticut.

#### GREETINGS FROM ENGLAND.

An echo of the celebration was heard across the water in the action of the town council of the city of Newark-on-Trent, which sent the following address on vellum to its namesake:

"We, the Mayor and Corporation of the ancient and royal Borough of Newark-on-Trent, in Council assembled this 27th day of March, 1916, send heartiest greetings and felicitations to the Mayor and Common Council of the city of Newark, New Jersey, upon the celebration of the 250th anniversary of the planting of your city. We rejoice greatly at the marvelous progress and prosperity of the daughter city. This ancestor-borough of Newark-on-Trent was known to the Romans as Ad Pontem, B. C. 54, and as "Aldwark" to the Saxons in A. D., 450. The present name of Newark was probably a corruption of New-work, either because of a new town built upon the ruins of the old, or because of a new work erected on our ancient Castle here. In the history of England this town has played a great part. It was here the struggles of the Civil War terminated by the surrender outside our walls of King Charles. Our Royal Charters date back to 1550, our incorporation to 1625, and thus our present mayor is the 291st of his long line. We recite these particulars as showing your city is linked up with one of no mean origin, and it is a source of glowing pride to us to note the fame and importance in manufactures, art and education which the daughter city has attained under your hands."



NEWARK'S FIRST SCHOOL HOUSE—SCHOOL PARADE

## City School Campaigns for Americanization

The Chicago (Ill.) Association of Commerce has held several conferences to consider co-operative plans for the "Education and Naturalization of Adult Foreigners." The co-operation of the Board of Education has already been enlisted to the extent of opening day schools for aliens who are unable to attend the evening sessions on account of night work. During the last week of November mass meetings for foreign-born residents were held in school buildings, at which distinguished citizens made addresses relative to naturalization and good citizenship, and urged the attendance of aliens at Chicago's thirty-four evening schools.

The Detroit Board of Commerce Americanization Committee, in an effort to increase the attendance in the new term of the public evening schools, recently carried out the following city-wide campaign:

- (1) 80,000 handbills printed in seven languages were given out at public offices and at more than 100 factories by Boy Scouts.
- (2) 600 window cards were placed in stores in the foreign districts by school children.
- (3) 800 maps showing the location of public evening schools were distributed among the plants.
- (4) 80 large companies were requested to print and distribute to their men a statement of policy concerning attendance of their men at night school. In addition to an endorsement of the policy of the dependence of advancement in the factory on attendance at the schools, the statement concluded:  
 "If it should become necessary to reduce our force at any future time, we will endeavor to retain a man with a good night school record in preference to a man not attending school."
- (5) 175 letters were sent to factories outlining the plan of co-operation with the schools and giving material for bulletin boards.
- (6) A mass meeting was held on January 5, to which were invited the 9,000 men who took out their first papers during 1916.
- (7) A mass meeting was held in the Jewish synagogue to boost the four new evening schools opened in the Jewish section.
- (8) Publicity material was sent to foreign papers and information to churches.
- (9) A series of news stories was sent to the English newspapers.

Alexander Mark's translation of Rabbi Jehiel Nissim da Pasa's "Compendium of Jewish Laws of Usury," with comments, appears in the current number of the American Economic Review under the title, "Description of the Bills of Exchange, 1559."



# The Relation of the History Curriculum to Vocational Training in the High Schools<sup>1</sup>

BY WILSON P. SHORTRIDGE, NORTH HIGH SCHOOL, MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.

When I first began thinking about what history a student in the vocational courses should take, the question occurred to me—what history as now offered do students take in the different courses of study in our high schools? To get some facts of some sort as a foundation for reasoning to a conclusion as to what history courses should be offered or required, I, with the co-operation of my colleagues in North High School, made a survey of graduates and present students of that school by courses of study to ascertain just what history is being taken by students in the different courses. I shall state some conclusions from that study as a basis for further discussion of this subject.

For the benefit of those teachers who may not be familiar with our courses as now provided in Minneapolis, I will say that there are seven courses of study, viz.: Manual training, commercial, home economics, Latin, modern language, general, and arts. The pupil elects his course of study upon his entrance to the high school. We offer the following history courses in connection with these courses of study: One year each of ancient, medieval and modern, English, including American colonial history, general, and commercial, and one-half year of civics and economics, and United States history since 1783. No history at all is required in the manual training, home economics or arts courses, but practically all history courses are elective. In the commercial course we require a year of general history, a year of commercial history and one-half year of civics. In the general course we require a year of general history or a year of Greek and Roman, together with United States history and civics, practically all other courses being elective. In the Latin course we require Greek and Roman; in the modern language course we require in addition to Greek and Roman a year of medieval and modern, the other courses being elective, except general and commercial. These courses of study are being revised and will no doubt be materially changed.

From the survey mentioned above, certain facts stand out more or less clearly: One of such facts which will have a bearing upon the subject under discussion is that there is a marked tendency, where the students have an option between the one year course in general history and the two year course in ancient and medieval and modern history, for the student to elect the longer course, and this is done in an increasing amount in succeeding years since that option has been permitted. Another fact of interest is that in those courses where no history is required, where stu-

dents have so free a field for electives, while we do have all sorts of peculiar combinations, nevertheless most students who begin history elect enough history courses to really count for something in history work. Also in courses where some history is required and then history becomes elective, by far the larger per cent. of students go on with the history in the later years of the course, except where they took the course in general history. Now, what does this mean? One thing that it indicates to me is that the tendency among pupils with us is away from the short course where they have a free choice, and that if the student begins history he will likely continue in it. The lesson to me is that we as history teachers need to take steps to get the students to begin history early in the course, and that it does not necessarily follow that the way to get him is to offer a short course.

Of our seven courses of study, two at least may be called vocational, manual training and commercial. Of those graduating from the manual training course last year about 85 per cent. had had no history at all in the high school. About 80 per cent. had had two years or more of history, and the others had had less than two years of history. In all cases, however, where only one year of history was elected, history was not begun until in the senior year. In other words, in all cases where the student began history early enough in the course to permit the election of more than one year of history, the student did so elect more than one year of history. Not one of these students had taken the short course in general history. On the other hand, a rather striking fact is that in the general course, where students did take the short course in general history (as they were required to do in the second year if they had not chosen Greek and Roman history in the first year) comparatively few of them elected any more history than what was required of them.

By a process of elimination we can see why more students in the manual training course do not elect more history. In the first two years of that course, three subjects are required, the only elective being between history and a language. In the third year two electives are offered, only two subjects being required. Here, however, physics is one of those electives, and it is natural and proper that a student interested along mechanical lines should have an elementary knowledge of physics. For the same reason he will probably elect chemistry in his senior year. Now where does history come in? If a student knows that he will go to the university for an engineering course (as only a small per cent. of last year's class did) he should have a modern language. That leaves as the only opportunity history as an elective in the

<sup>1</sup> Read at the History Section of the Minnesota Educational Association at St. Paul, Minn., November 2, 1916.

senior year. One year of history is, therefore, about all that can be expected from those manual training students who expect to go to the university, but that is all right because they will probably have an opportunity at the university to take some history courses. Now for the student who does not intend to go to the university, but who expects to go into industry upon graduation from the high school. This is really the class under discussion, and here it is largely a question as to which has the greater value for the student, history or a modern language. And this question suggests the other one—what values does history offer as a high school subject? This will be discussed later in this paper.

Now, regarding the commercial course. At present we require a year of general history, a year of commercial history and one-half year of civics. I believe that it would be the overwhelming if not unanimous verdict of teachers as well as pupils that this course as at present constituted is not satisfactory from the standpoint of history. I have two suggestions to meet this situation. The first is to admit students in vocational courses (and, if possible, require it) to the regular history courses beginning not later than the second year. This will necessitate a short introductory study at the beginning of the semester of the contributions of the ancient world to modern civilization. Our present text (West's "Modern World") has such an introductory study. To the commercial or vocational student the ancient world means less than it does to the classical student, and, if omission must be made, I believe it could be more properly made there. Then instead of having the unsatisfactory course as at present, the student could have a year of European history, with emphasis upon continental development, a year of English history, with emphasis upon political and economic development, and a year of American history and civics. This is a more thorough and a more interesting course, and the commercial or industrial phases of development can be studied in greater detail than other students may make by collateral reading and special topics along those lines, where other students in other courses may be reading on social or political topics, and thus a full rich course be given with the different lines of development studied together (as they actually happened in time) instead of (as at present) a smattering of political history from the dawn of history to A. D. 1916 in one short school year—and then when the student has probably forgotten most of those bewildering facts, a second dose almost as bewildering over the same road, but dealing with commercial development, is administered. Certainly one very definite result can be expected from the present arrangement—all interest in history and things historical may be totally and forever killed. It would require the interest of a genius in history to survive that double dose that is at present being administered. Instead of this, without any other change than that of eliminating general and commercial history as such, and adapting the regular courses as above indicated to meet the individual needs of vocational students a much more satisfactory arrangement would exist. At

present in our courses in European and English history much emphasis is placed upon economic and commercial development, and stress is laid upon the modern period. In our own school, Cheyney's "Social and Industrial History of England" and Ogg's "Social Progress in Contemporary Europe," as well as other books, are in our school library in sufficient numbers to make possible a class-room study in some detail. Of such topics as the medieval system of industry and the manorial system of agriculture, and the changes through the industrial revolution and the economic transformation in agriculture to bring home to the student's mind an understanding of present-day economic problems. An understanding of such a topic as the present housing and land problem in Great Britain, for example, would be all but impossible without such a study of how the situation came to be as it is. Every student needs to make that study of industrial development and most of all the vocational. It could very well be done at the same time. In American history we have a semester for the national period (the colonial period being treated with English history where it of right belongs). This makes possible the giving of considerable attention to economic development. As we use Cheyney's "Social and Industrial History of England" for the economic side of English history, so we have many copies of Bogart's "Economic History of the United States," together with Coman and Moore. The economic development is treated along with the political. For example, one cannot get a proper understanding of the period between the war of 1812 and the annexation of Texas unless a careful study be made of the economic forces which were working and shaping political movements during the period. The study of the tariff cannot be fully understood unless at the same time westward development, the public lands, internal improvements, and the rise of a labor agitation be studied. Such a topic as the Webster-Hayne debate cannot be correctly interpreted unless there be an explanation of the interaction of all of these forces. The question of the merchant marine and the decline of shipping means something to the student if he has such an all-around development of the subject as the events actually happened. Because I believe it a mistake to have the high school student to attempt a specialized course in any line of development as industrial and commercial history without first having a thorough course in the general development of Europe and America, I believe it much better not to attempt a division of courses in history for the so-called vocational courses. This is my first proposition.

My second one is that if this plan could not meet the approval of the makers of the courses of study, and they insisted upon organizing separate classes for the students in the vocational courses, a two years' course in European history with some such texts as Robinson and Breasted and Robinson and Beard "Outlines of European History" (not necessarily those books, of course) be used, with emphasis along the lines indicated above. It is difficult in actual practice, however, to run two sets of history courses at the same time in the same school. There would



be conflicts of classes, and we would find it necessary at times to assign vocational students to the regular history classes anyway, so I therefore maintain that it is better for the vocational student and less confusing for the program of recitations to combine the two in the regular classes. I believe it much better to keep the continuity and richness of the four years' course intact, and let the vocational student take what he can of it, trying to get him to take at least three years of it, but being sure above everything else that what he does take is good. I believe this for the reasons which follow.

The question at issue really is, should the history course be shortened or should a short history course be encouraged—especially for those students whose formal education is to end with the high school. Before we can answer that question we must first determine the goal of history instruction. We history teachers, of course, believe in history instruction, but we are perhaps puzzled at times by the question as to just why history is a valuable subject of study for high school students.

Is the great aim of history instruction the securing a knowledge of the principal facts which have been recorded in the progress of man from the earliest days up to the great present? Yes, indeed, it is that, but it is also much more. A knowledge of certain facts is of fundamental importance in history work. There must be memory drills—drudgery, perhaps, you may call it—to make the fundamental facts stick in the pupil's memory. He should master certain facts so well that they will become a part of his permanent store of knowledge. The importance of this phase of the work must not be minimized, and, incidentally, it might be stated that this is much easier said than done. Many of the makers of our courses of study, however, and most of the advocates of a shorter course probably think this to be the only aim of history instruction. If it were the only aim, history teaching would be a very disappointing proposition. Who has not experienced the disappointment of asking students for fundamental facts or dates, things which they should by all means know, and found them woefully lacking? Teachers of senior subjects often experience this, and perhaps have a tendency to charge it to the negligence of the teachers in the earlier years of the course, and no doubt university teachers have experienced it, and have felt at times like charging it up to all of us high school teachers. If a teacher has the rather disappointing but very valuable experience, however, of having the same students that he had in a previous semester, and finds that facts that were emphasized and drilled on during the previous term have not been retained as he fondly hoped they would be, and he cannot charge it up to the negligence of some other teacher, and he knows that those facts were emphasized and drilled upon and seemingly mastered, it raises the question sometimes as to whether history instruction is really worth while, if a permanent knowledge of a very long list of facts is the sole or great aim of history instruction. If it be granted that a knowledge of certain

facts is the *raison d'être* of history instruction, and if history teachers or school authorities should agree upon just what facts are of fundamental importance, and if it be further provided that such lists of facts be not too long a list, then a short course over several centuries of time might have some reason for being. Before deciding the question yet, however, let us see what further values history may have as a subject of study.

History instruction should help lay a foundation for sound thinking, and it should emancipate the mind from wrong habits of thought. For example, a common weakness among men is "jumping at a conclusion," of forming an opinion before all the facts are known, and then perhaps seeking facts to uphold that opinion and rejecting those facts which are contrary to that already formed opinion. History instruction should help set up habits of open- and fair-mindedness. It should give training in impartially looking at both sides of a question, and carefully weighing the evidence pro and con before reaching a final conclusion. It must deal with the weighing of probabilities as well as of facts. Our conclusions on the problems we meet in every-day life must be based to a large extent upon probabilities. We need to get all the available facts, but most of our vital decisions on every-day practical questions must come from weighing probabilities. A business man cannot always mathematically prove in advance that his adventure will succeed. He must have all the facts, then weigh the probabilities, and his final success depends as much, or perhaps more, upon the latter than on the former. No other subject in the high school affords such good training in this process of gathering and using facts and weighing probabilities as does history. This is a habit, however, that can be but slowly developed as a result of mental processes running through a considerable period of time. The highest value or greatest good must come from a repetition of the process until historical-mindedness becomes more or less a habit. You may tell a student in a short time to be historical-minded, but it is quite a different thing to get him to be historical-minded. The following quotation is taken from the editorial column of one of our Minneapolis papers a short time ago: "The discouraging thing about American political affairs oftentimes is the lethargy of the American mind. The labor of thinking is irksome to many. Prejudices are easily appealed to, as the demagogue knows. But it is sometimes a task of appalling proportions to induce voters to use their minds, to reason things out, to follow logical processes of thought." The truth of this statement is beyond question. History, if properly taught, affords just such a mental training, and is of invaluable service, not only to the individual, but also to the State. A short history course could do little in this direction.

Secondary education in general, as well as history instruction in particular, should be practical—it should meet the needs of every-day life. In our vocational courses, especially, we are too likely, however, to think of practical education only in the light of

making a living. School authorities sometimes act in making vocational courses as if the sole aim of education were to make a living. It sometimes appears that they almost forget that there are large social responsibilities for the individual as well as private interests. I maintain that any educational system that is supported by public taxation should of necessity include a thorough training in citizenship. Of all students, the ones whose formal education is to end with the high school, the ones therefore in our vocational courses, should have thorough training to make them good citizens as well as good stenographers or good mechanics. History and civics, if properly taught, offer that training, and should by all means be included and given sufficient time to get something like adequate results. Like telling a student to be historical-minded you can tell him in a short time to be a good citizen. But good citizenship is a habit the same as historical-mindedness is a habit, and it takes time to instill any habit that is really worth while. A short history course could do little along this line.

Then, again, history instruction should give a knowledge of many books and how to use books and libraries. Next to knowing the thing itself, the most valuable thing is to know where and how the information may be found, and to have the ability and interest to do the thing in a proper way. Here, again, it is habit and one that a short course could do little with, because in a short course text-book work is about all that can be done because of a lack of time.

Another thing that a good high school history course should do is, not only to acquaint the student as to how the world of to-day came to be what it is, but also to acquaint him with what the world of to-day is. This cannot be done from the regular text, no matter how good it is, for the simple reason that events of importance do not cease happening when the text-book goes to press. And frequently the authors of good text-books are negligent in keeping the book revised up to date. A study of recent and current history must come from outside the text, and, if the length of the course permit it, it is possible to use one of several good weekly or monthly magazines in connection with the history work. A magazine like the "Literary Digest" or "Independent" may be had for school use at five cents a copy. Pupils should be encouraged to thus subscribe for such a magazine, if one is not already in the home, and one period a week or part of one period a week should be given for this work. With such work running over two years or more of high school a student will not only acquire something of a knowledge of present-day problems, but what is probably more valuable, he will have been trained to some extent at least in the selection of the more valuable things in magazine and newspaper, and how to get at and select and use the more valuable things. This habit is invaluable to the citizen, but, like other good habits, it takes time to adequately develop it.

Probably as valuable a thing as a history course can give is one that has been suggested at different times in this paper, viz.: a permanent interest in history

and in things historical. We must not forget that our product is an unfinished product upon graduation from the high school, and that a necessary part of his equipment must be the means and the desire for the acquisition of further knowledge. It is not to be hoped or expected, of course, that all of our students will be interested as much in history as we are. But it is our business as history teachers to leave with our students an abiding interest in the subject. Nor does this mean that the requirement of thoroughness in the mastery of the tasks set shall be sacrificed. Easy and interesting are not synonymous in school work. While thoroughness is not to be neglected, it is essential that such a degree of interest be stimulated that after the high school graduate may have become a good stenographer or a good mechanic he will likewise be a good citizen and interested in good citizenship, and how it came to be what it is and whither it is tending. Above all, our history courses should not permit a student to feel that he knows it all—that all history is within the covers of his text-book, and, having fairly mastered that, he has learned all there is to learn about the subject. Last winter in talking with one of my best students in English history, I was considerably jarred when he remarked that he did not think it necessary for him to take the course in senior American history because, as he said, he had learned all of that in the eighth grade.

We might go on and mention other valuable aims of history instruction, but enough has been said to make clear my main contention that history has values which are eminently worth while, but which require adequate time for development. What we need to do as history teachers is not so much to help construct a short course in history to fit into somebody's scheme for making good stenographers and good mechanics, but to be fully convinced among ourselves that we have something to offer in the training of future citizens which is fully as valuable and probably more vital in the life of the republic than the mere ability to make an honest living. Is it to be wondered at if our citizens care more for the almighty dollar than they do for the finer ideals of citizenship if our public schools emphasize vocational training and neglect training in citizenship? We should, therefore, first of all realize fully our mission. And when we have the full realization of our opportunity and responsibility it becomes us to fight to convince others, especially the makers of our courses of study, that what we have to offer is worth three or four years' work in the life of every boy and girl, and especially those whose formal education must end with the high school. As a minimum requirement, all students should take American history and civics. They will give us a hearing if we can show them that we ourselves know what we want to do and can do it. The word "Americanism," that we hear so much about to-day, is full of opportunity and responsibility for the history teacher. Unhappy events which have happened in our country in the last two years have indicated that we have not Americanized all the elements of our population to the extent to which we thought we had. The

public schools have been looked upon as the great melting pot in which the children of all the elements of our population meet upon a democratic basis with equal privilege and opportunity, and are fused into a common American citizenship. The public schools have done a great work in this line, but they have not yet succeeded as perfectly as it is possible for them to do. Many students drop out of school, of course, before completing the high school course, but an increasing number is remaining in school. In many high schools, however, American history is not even offered, and in comparatively few is American history and civics required for graduation. We history teachers of the country have collectively a unique opportunity to make Americanism mean something more definite in the life of this nation in the future, particularly if school authorities will make American history and civics a requirement for graduation from the high school. I do not mean by this that we should misinterpret facts in order to make it appear that America and our forefathers were always right whether they were or not. In this respect history has but one purpose, and that is to establish truth. The American citizen must not be made vainglorious, he must not overestimate our importance as a nation, he must not be permitted to feel that America is the only nation that has worked out or will work out great social and economic problems which will benefit mankind. He must not be permitted to feel that our government, good as it is and proud of it as we justly are, is necessarily the last word in political science, and that we have nothing to learn from, but everything to teach to other nations. In this respect, I say, history has but one purpose, and that is to establish truth.

The task is enormous, but the sense of even a partial achievement will be worth the effort it will take. To instill the proper ideals of Americanism and good citizenship we must first of all get all the students into our American history and civics classes. Then we must have them long enough to instill the habits and ideals which it is our aim to instill. Let us but convince the makers of our courses of study of the full value of the thing we have to offer, and then "deliver the goods" whenever and wherever we have the opportunity, and they will be as willing to extend the time of required work in history as they are now sometimes willing to shorten the history course. A longer time of required work in history from all students, rather than a shorter course, should be our watchword.

Yves Guyot's article on "The Dissolution of the German Empire" in the "English Review," is a vigorous appeal for the continuance of the war until this dissolution is accomplished. He urges this on the ground that the victory of the Allies must be the liberation of Europe from German dominance.

Helen Dunstan Wright's "Little Known Sardinia" in the "National Geographic Magazine" for August, contains many interesting illustrations, and gives a good picture of social conditions.

## Reports from The Historical Field

A symposium on "Military Training for School Boys," giving the opinion of eighty persons upon this question, has been published by the Peace Committee of the Philadelphia Yearly Meeting of Friends (304 Arch Street, Philadelphia).

A committee of the National Education Association has prepared a study upon "Vocational Secondary Education," which appears as Bulletin No. 21 for the year 1916 of the United States Bureau of Education. The pamphlet contains a sketch of the history and development of vocational secondary schools, and then gives a number of general definitions and illustrative examples of vocational secondary school work. Ways are suggested for introducing vocational education and methods suggested for organizing the school work and gathering data about industry and industrial workers. The problems in connection with vocational education and vocational guidance are treated, and a brief appendix gives the location of the several States covering this form of education.

"The Catholic Historical Review" for January, 1917, contains a study by the Right Rev. J. F. R. Canavin upon "Loss and Gain in the Catholic Church in the United States, 1800 to 1916." Dr. Waldo G. Leland gives an account of the Catholic Historical Societies in America, and outlines the fields of profitable work which such societies might undertake. The Rev. V. F. O'Daniel treats of the "First Bishop to Visit the Present Territory of the United States," and Dr. Joseph Magri discusses the "Catholic Church in Virginia from 1850 to 1872."

Miss Caroline Hill Davis has prepared for the Library School of the New York Public Library a "List of References on Pageants in Great Britain and the United States" (New York Public Library, 15 cents). The pamphlet is the most extensive bibliography of pageantry which has thus far appeared. It is divided into General Works, Shakespearean Festivals, and Pageants, Pageants in Great Britain and Canada, Pageants in the United States, and Works on Pageant Costume. In the list of General Bibliographies of Pageantry, reference should have been made to the HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE, Volume 6, pages 279 to 281.

The Historical Society of East and West Baton Rouge, La., celebrated the one hundredth anniversary of the incorporation of the City of Baton Rouge on Tuesday, January 16. The outdoor exercises were interfered with on account of the very inclement weather. At the indoor meetings papers were presented showing the development of the city, and in the evening a series of historical tableaux were given marking the principal events in the history of the city.

"Suggested Readings for History Classes, 1916-17" is the title of a recent pamphlet issued by the New York State Department of Education, and prepared by Avery W. Skinner, specialist in history of the department. The selection is made to fit the needs of secondary school pupils, but works are also included which may be of value to the general reader. The readings are listed under Ancient History, the History of Great Britain and Ireland, Modern History, and American History.

## BOOK REVIEWS

EDITED BY PROFESSOR WAYLAND J. CHASE,  
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

MALLET, CHRISTIAN. *Impressions and Experiences of a French Trooper, 1914-1915*. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. Pp. 167. \$1.00, net.

Among the many narratives of personal experiences during the first year of the war published thus far, this book will rank very favorably. It is the story of the writer's personal experiences as private in a dragoon regiment in the early months of the war, and later as an infantry officer in one of the earlier offensives against the German intrenchments. He tells how his regiment marched from Rheims to Liege at first, and then of their heart-breaking retreat. A very thrilling experience was being surrounded in a forest behind the German lines, and then escaping as a result of the victory of the Marne. The whole account is written in most excellent simple English. It is without affectation or attempts at self-glorification, and shows more clearly than any mere exposition what confusion and agony had to be endured during the first months before the French army "found itself." High school pupils will undoubtedly enjoy this book.

CLARENCE PERKINS.

Ohio State University.

SMITH, G. BURRELL. *Outlines of European History, 1814-1914*. New York: Longmans, Green & Co. London: Edward Arnold, 1916. Pp. 262. 76 cents.

This book was written by an Englishman for the use of teachers in England. It has a introductory chapter on the Congress of Vienna, and brings the narrative down to the outbreak of the present European war. The author says in his preface that he "has tried to keep before himself the need for simplicity, and has especially attempted to avoid overburdening the narrative with references to unessential persons, places and events." He has succeeded well in his attempt. The book is readable, and is within the range of high school students. The author "makes no claim to throw new light upon any part of the subject, but has been content to express the accepted view wherever he has been able to ascertain it."

The book in two respects differs slightly from the usual accounts, and both would be expected from an English author at the present time. The account of the history of Belgium is fuller than most of our accounts in high school reference books, and shows the relation of England to the neutrality of Belgium. It also shows the underlying forces which led to England's participation in the present war. While it might be said to be the statement of an interested party to the controversy, it nevertheless seems to be a fair statement of the issues from the English viewpoint.

The book has been published in America probably with a view of being used as collateral reading in high schools, and it would be well adapted for that purpose.

WILSON P. SHORTRIDGE.

North High School, Minneapolis.

HAWORTH, PAUL LELAND. *America in Ferment*. Indianapolis: The Bobbs-Merrill Co., 1915. Pp. 477. \$1.50, net.

In a breezy, journalistic fashion, Dr. Haworth discusses in this volume many of the political, economic, and social problems of the day. An idea of the content of the book can be gained from the following chapter headings: "The Color Line," "The Blood of the Nation," "The Problem of Industrial Peace," "How Can We Raise the Standard of

Living," "The Revolt of the Women," "Socialism in America."

The author strongly favors highly restricting immigration. "Our ancestors made a grave mistake in importing the negro—to develop the country!—and we ought to consider whether we are not making an even greater one in permitting the influx of swarms whose ways are not our ways and whose blood is not our blood" (p. 113). No general improvement in our standard of living, or in our wage-scale, can take place "if we continue our present policy of practically unrestricted immigration" (p. 273). "The shaft with which to pierce the Achilles heel of Plutocracy" is the generous extension of the inheritance tax. The author believes heartily in woman suffrage, deeming its complete victory a matter of short time. Though friendly to socialism, he thinks the day far distant when it will be put into full operation. He strongly endorses the initiative and referendum, the recall, primary election laws, the short ballot, and the commission form of government for cities.

Naturally in such a survey there is much that is controversial. Some old-fashioned folk (among them the reviewer) still believe the prime function of the church is and ought to be the administering to man's religious needs, not "the grappling with the living social and economic problems of the day." The picture of rural life in the Middle West is painted in too dark colors. Historians are no longer willing to accept the implication of the text that Douglas' motive in launching the Kansas-Nebraska bill was nothing more than "a bold personal bid for southern support in the next Presidential campaign" (p. 369). Montesquieu does not deserve all the credit, or discredit, for the "separation of powers" in our system of government (p. 279).

Dr. Haworth has quoted generously from various sources, and, while liberal with quotation marks, has frequently considered footnote citations superfluous. The book contains a useful, though brief, bibliography.

HOWARD C. HILL.

Milwaukee State Normal School.

REED, THOMAS HARRISON. *Form and Functions of American Government*. Yonkers-on-Hudson: World Book Co., 1916. Pp. xv, 549. \$1.50.

This is a text-book in civil government, "intended," as the author tells us, "primarily for that great majority of high school pupils who go no further on the road of formal education, and aims to deal with the principles of governmental organization and activity in such a way as to be a suitable basis for the most thorough high school course in preparation for citizenship."

School text-books in government may follow either of two tendencies. They may be meant to aid the teacher by selecting the material which is best for the average pupil in the average school and by stating this so briefly that all of it may be thoroughly covered in the time commonly at the disposal of classes in this subject. Such books are too rare, and the teachers who need such books are numbered by the tens of thousands. The other tendency is to supply a much fuller book with more material than any one class is likely to use, and leave it to the teacher to select what is to be given to any particular class. This latter is probably the better method for the well trained teacher who is not over-worked, and this is the method followed by the present author. The result is an admirable book, scholarly, well proportioned, well printed, and generally complete.

Its introduction is a brief answer to the question, "Why do we study government?" The body of the book is divided into six major sections bearing the following captions: The background of American government with 50 pages, parties

and elections, 40 pages; state government, 78 pages; local government, 48 pages; government of the United States, 94 pages; functions of government, 162 pages. In the last section are fifteen chapters, with the following headings: Foreign relations and national defense, crime and its prevention, public morals and recreation, care of dependents, education, the preservation of health, the conservation of national resources, money and banking, the regulation of corporations, the control and ownership of public utilities, government and labor, immigration, municipal functions, revenue and taxation, government finance.

These subjects are presented from a full knowledge of recent progress in government and an experience of nine years in the teaching of it. The author's judgments are mature and his presentation of them sufficiently modest. The effectiveness of the book is augmented no little by the use of about seventy illustrations presenting such subjects as a ballot, the heading of a legislative bill, a summons, plans of government for cities, the President's engagements for a day, a passport, the New York City water supply system, principal irrigation projects in the western part of the United States, the Roosevelt dam, damage done by flood, a waiting room at Ellis Island, and a large number of other new and fresh material.

EDGAR DAWSON.

Hunter College of the City of New York.

HODGES, HENRY G. *The Doctrine of Intervention*. Princeton, N. J.: The Banner Press, 1915. Pp. xii + 288. \$1.50.

In this monograph, Mr. Hodges has combined an historical study of the doctrine of intervention with a discussion of its principles. The work is well done, and will be of value to students of international law. Frequent citations are made from the works of Hall, Oppenheim, Moore and other standard authorities in support of the author's opinions. The discussion starts with a definition sufficiently broad to warrant a consideration of pretty much everything which pertains to the relations between nations.

Political intervention is justifiable when necessary to self-preservation, to uphold the balance of power or to protect neutralized States or canals, but in the opinion of Mr. Hodges, intervention to uphold the nation with the just cause, a principle so strongly urged to-day by the friends of the Allies, is "not warranted by any of the principles of international law."

Non-political intervention is allowable for the protection of citizens in foreign countries. "The government which does not exercise its rights in this particular is not worthy of the name." This principle has furnished most frequent cause for intervention, especially in the affairs of weak nations. How far a nation is justified in intervention to secure payment of contract debts is carefully considered, and interesting quotations are given of opinion on that subject. Mr. Root is quoted as saying at Buenos Ayres in 1906: "We deem the use of force for the collection of ordinary contract debts to be an invitation to abuses in their necessary results far worse, far more baneful to humanity than that the debts contracted by any nation should go unpaid." In a message to the United States Senate, President Roosevelt said: "Except for arbitrary wrong, done or sanctioned by superior authority, to persons or to vested property rights, the United States Government, following its traditional usage in such cases, aims to go no further than the mere use of its good offices, a measure which frequently proves ineffective. On the other hand, however, there are governments which do sometimes take energetic action for the protection of their subjects in the enforcement of merely contractual claims, and thereupon

American concessionaires, supported by powerful influences, make loud appeal to the United States Government in similar cases for similar action."

The chapter dealing with the subject of intervention in Mexico is of particular interest at this time.

The economic and political antecedents of the question are examined as well as the "present dilemma." Mr. Hodges maintains that our policy toward Mexico cannot be influenced by the same principles which guide our international relations with European nations. The peculiar nature of the Mexicans must be considered in our efforts to mould their political destinies. From the earliest occupation of the country the land has been held in enormous tracts by a few individuals. "The common people came to be considered a part of the land they occupied." "A land aristocracy was built up in close relation to the central powers." Another economic factor which profoundly affects the Mexican problem arises from the practise of granting to foreigners concessions which cover "all conceivable fields of economic endeavor." The conflicts which arise among the concessionaires furnish the occasion for foreign intervention. "The influence of the losing interests is at the disposal of any faction strong enough to undertake a formidable opposition to the existing order." The invasion of foreign interests arouses discontent and suspicion in the ignorant poor class.

The fact that Mexico is rich and the Mexicans poor makes foreign aid necessary for internal development. The railroads, mines, oil, and public utilities are chiefly the property of foreigners. American capital invested in Mexico to the amount of \$1,000,000,000, and Americans resident there to the number of 31,000, give the United States a peculiar interest in the present situation. While it is necessary that these interests be given adequate protection, that is the protection afforded the interests of citizens of Mexico, yet "exertion on the part of the United States in the interest of large holdings should proceed very cautiously and with a full knowledge of the facts."

The refusal of President Wilson to recognize Huerta is contrasted with the precedent of President Pierce who, in the course of a few months, recognized "five successive revolutionary governments." The author believes that if withholding recognition prevents the repetition of such a state of affairs, it will have served a useful purpose. The policy of President Wilson is in keeping with that of Mr. Seward, who thought that the United States should "wait before recognizing General Diaz until it shall be assured that his election is desired by the Mexican people, and that his administration is possessed of stability to endure."

Further intervention in Mexican affairs should "not be undertaken until such a prolonged reign of virtual anarchy has taken place as to threaten the very existence of civilization in that country. Progress so far has been slow, but no slower than has been the case in other countries in the past." "Internal changes cannot take place in an instant." "If it cost this country four years of constant warfare to settle the question of negro slavery, we should allow Mexico at least the same amount of time to settle her own larger slavery question."

The last chapter contains a discussion of the intervention in the European war in which the attitude of each of the belligerents is briefly stated. In regard to the position of the United States and the possibility of our intervening in the war, the author quotes the advice which Baron de Nolken, the Swedish Ambassador to England, gave to John Adams in the time of the Napoleonic wars. "Sir, I take it for granted that you all have sense enough to see us in Europe cut each other's throats with a philosophical tranquillity."

In considering the excuse given for Germany's violation

of the neutrality of Belgium, that the latter country had forfeited her privileges as a neutralized nation by erecting forts on the German frontier, Mr. Hodges cites Article IV of the convention of 1831, which stipulates, "The fortresses of Belgium which are not mentioned in Article 1, of the present Convention, as destined to be dismantled, shall be maintained; His Majesty the King of the Belgians engages to keep them constantly in good order."

The "secret documents" discovered in Belgium do not furnish any legal justification for the German invasion, for they provide for "the entry of the English into Belgium only after the violation of our neutrality by Germany." Such entry would be unavoidable if England met her obligations in the treaty of 1839.

ARCHIBALD FREEMAN.

Phillips Andover Academy.

SMITH, L. PEARSELL. *The English Language*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1914. Pp. 256. 50 cents.

The publishers of this Home University Library series have enriched the resources of teachers of history again and again through the publication of scholarly little manuals at small cost, such, for example, as Andrews' "The Colonial Period," Paxson's "The American Civil War," and Myers' "The Dawn of History," to name only a few of the many excellent titles. In spite, however, of the service and our growing habit of expecting help from this source, the value of Mr. Smith's book for teachers of history in the high school may have been overlooked by many, because its title suggests usefulness primarily for another department than our own. But language, as he points out, is the expression of the thought of the era which fashioned it for its instrument, and not only does every word possess an ascertainable history, but many of them bear important traces of the event or movement of thought to which they owe their creation. Here, then, is a clear hint of the service of this book to teachers of our subject, who will find the three chapters on "Language and History" of especial value.

DUGGAN, STEPHEN PIERCE. *A Student's Textbook in the History of Education*. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1916. Pp. xii + 383. \$1.25.

As one reads this book, he is conscious of passing through many areas of condensation and rarefaction. There is some excuse for such an arrangement if the unimportant is treated with proper regard for its value as a contribution to the later development of education, and if the more significant theories and tendencies receive their due share of emphasis. Here the reviewer finds that important things—theories, practices, institutions, etc.—have been slighted, while much that is unimportant has been emphasized.

"Roman Writers on Education" are treated in one short paragraph. Apparently only Quintilian contributed anything worth mentioning. If, as the author says, "his suggestions conform in many instances to the most approved of the present day," some of these suggestions ought to be set out. Again, we read that "it (Quintilian's *De Institutione Oratoria*) was of much service to the humanists after its discovery in the early Renaissance." But when we come to the Renaissance period, we find no reference to Quintilian. In any treatment of the Renaissance, Vives certainly deserves consideration with such men as Erasmus, Vittorino da Feltre, Ascham, Sturm, and Colet, but he has been overlooked. Vives' *Christi triumphus*, *De disciplinis*, and his treatise on the education of women constituted a very important contribution to the spirit and content of the Renaissance. Furthermore, Comenius owed just as much to Vives as he did to Bacon, but here again

the author does not acknowledge Vives. In the treatment of American colonial education, that old stand-by, "the famous Law of 1647," is taken as the starting-point of education in Massachusetts. The Law of 1642, and the important practice which it established, are not mentioned. If "foreign influences" upon American education are worth considering at all, they should be set out in some detail.

University of Wisconsin.

ROBERT FRANCIS SEYBOLT.

ROBINSON, JAMES HARVEY. *Medieval and Modern Times*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1916. Pp. 777. \$1.60.

This is a revision of the "Introduction to the History of Western Europe," by the same author, which appeared in 1902. The main purpose in the revision, according to the author's statement, was to simplify the book, thereby fitting it to the requirements of secondary school work, and to give a more adequate discussion of the recent history of Europe up to the outbreak of the great war in 1914. In both of these objects the author has succeeded. A comparative reading of parallel sections in both books shows a large amount of condensation in the discussions dealing with medieval institutions and affairs, as well as a noticeable simplification in the language and style throughout, thus fitting it better to the capacity of the high school pupil. Yet this change has not, in the author's opinion, rendered the book unsuitable for college work in introductory courses.

One hundred and eighty pages, or almost one-fourth of the book, are devoted to the discussion of European affairs since 1815. This is about one hundred pages more on this period than was contained in the original volume. Therefore, affairs which have received entirely inadequate attention in most of the school texts are given the fuller discussion which they merit. The story of the last century which has been the real "Dark Ages" for so many of our school pupils is here revealed in the light of the experience through which Europe is passing at present.

Many things in this volume merit especial attention. With a warning to the student in the beginning that history deals not merely with events, but more properly with institutions and social conditions, he emphasizes throughout the development and influence of institutions, and the character and effect of social conditions in a consistent fashion. His wide use of the "topical method" in organizing and presenting his material is a prominent feature. This avoids crowding the discussion of the earlier centuries with details more or less disconnected, which is the case when all essential facts are introduced in chronological order. This plan is, of course, not new, but it is very consistently and constantly employed here, and gives the book a valuable quality from the standpoint of class-room use. The book is marked by a superior mechanical excellence, and far surpasses the average textbook in the number and especially the quality of its illustrations and plates, several of which are colored. Practically every illustration has an explanatory legend accompanying it, which makes a great addition to its value to the student. The maps are numerous and well made. There is a bibliography of about twenty pages, well arranged for use, which makes no claim to completeness, but which contains ample material for any high school class.

With respect to the all-important matter, the accuracy of the author's scholarship, there is no question, nor of his ability to view the subject from the standpoint of the immature student.

All in all, then, this book makes a very real addition to the group of textbooks which are suited for use in high schools.

FRANK W. LEASE.

High School, Salem, Ohio.



MACVEAGH, FANNY DAVENPORT (ROGERS) (Mrs. Charles MacVeagh). *Fountains of Papal Rome*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1915. Pp. xiv, 312. \$2.50.

"The fountains of Rome are in themselves title-pages to Roman history." With this conclusion Mrs. MacVeagh closes the introduction to her book. Pagan emperors and Christian popes have constructed fountains and aqueducts in Rome so that the eternal city has the most abundant water supply of any place in the world. Probably only the Moors have so appreciated the value and beauty of water. These constructions even if we are denied the galleries and churches, the catacombs and hidden recesses, the old ruins and remains, give us a splendid introduction to Roman history and take us back into the days of the Renaissance, of the counter reformation, of the Napoleonic era, and of the great Risorgimento.

Mrs. MacVeagh recites the history of the building of over a score of fountains, and gives a description of them as they are to-day. Rudolph Ruzicka has furnished fourteen full-page wood engravings of the fountains described. Appended are translations of inscriptions found on some of these fountains; a chronological index of aqueducts and popes mentioned in the book; and an alphabetical list of architects, sculptors, painters, and engravers to which reference is made. There is no general index. The book is well written and printed, and should delight the student intensely interested in the history of the Eternal City.

HENRY NOBLE SHERWOOD.

State Normal School, La Crosse, Wis.

#### HISTORY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATIONS.

Additions to and corrections of the following list of associations are requested by the editor of the *MAGAZINE*:

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## PERIODICAL LITERATURE

EDITED BY GERTRUDE BRAMLETTE RICHARDS, PH.D.

Myron T. Herrick writes again on "The Federal Farm Loan Act," this time in "The Atlantic" for February. His opposition to the act is based on the general ignorance and disregard of essentials in both fact and principle shown in its adoption. However, the analysis of the act given by Mr. Herrick is fair and quite thorough.

Professor Jeremiah W. Jenks discusses "The Chinese Attitude Toward Japan" most ably in the February "Scribner's." The article is written after the author's visit to China to ascertain the attitude of the Chinese people toward Japan, and in it he presents the patriotic and practical objections to Japanese plans for the development of Chinese resources.

The February "Century" is of unusual interest to historians. M. Jules Bois, a member of the staff of the "Figaro," of Paris, who is lecturing in this country, writes on "France and America, Partners;" Herbert Adams Gibbons contributes a stirring appeal to the Allied Nations in the third of his series of articles on the problems of reconstruction in Europe, in "Constantinople, Principle or Power;" Arthur Gleason, who is now studying labor conditions in England, embodies his conclusions in an article entitled, "The Social Revolution in England;" Harold Killock writes on "Fair Play for the Railroads;" Major J. B. Merwin, a friend of President Lincoln's, tells of "Lincoln and Peter Cartwright," and George Creel, a vigorous and whole-hearted supporter of the present administration, writes on "Can a Democratic Government Control Prices?"

Walter Hale gives an interesting account of trench life in his article, "My Two Visits to Verdun," which appears in the February "Harper's."

"The Feasibility of the President's Peace Program" ("Literary Digest" for February 3) is a careful analysis of the President's message to the Senate and of the conditions which it meets.

William Minkel's article on "Living Conditions in Germany and Austria" in the "Review of Reviews" for February is perhaps the most authentic account of the food situation in Germany which has yet appeared. It represents the German food supply as being well husbanded, but not in the least degree in danger of being exhausted.

"The Outlook" for January 24, publishes Alfred Noyes' "The Lion of Flanders," a true history of the slave raids in Belgium. This vigorous and sternly accusing article is evidently based on an accurate and painstaking study of the subject from the point of view of all available information.

Arno Dosch-Fleuret's "In a Dugout on Douaumont" ("World's Work" for February) is one of the most vivid descriptions of the battlefield around Verdun which has appeared as yet.

Hon. Bertrand Russell's "Political Ideals" in the February "North American" is an excellent exposition of the purpose of all government.

The Department of Education of the State of Alabama has issued a pamphlet upon "Good Roads," and also on "The Celebration of Arbor Day," showing how to treat the surface of a country road, how to plant a tree, and giving facts concerning the value of good roads and the planting of trees.

The last number of the "Edinburgh Review" has an able article by the Dean of Durham Cathedral on "Church and State in England." According to the writer, the war is hastening the pace of the movement of the Church of England to a great revolution of status and type. The profound internal dissidence of the Church of England is its salient characteristic; it can never be formally recognized, and in all official proceedings it is almost necessarily ignored, although it has existed since the Tractarian movement.

## BOOKS ON HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT PUBLISHED IN THE UNITED STATES FROM DECEMBER 30, 1916, TO JANUARY 27, 1917.

LISTED BY CHARES A. COULOMB, PH.D.

### American History.

- Adams, James T. Memorials of old Bridgehampton, L. I. Bridgehampton, L. I. [The Author]. 399 pp. \$1.50, net.
- Babbitt, Charles H. Early days at Council Bluffs. Wash., D. C.: B. S. Adams [512 Eleventh St., N. W.]. 96 pp. \$1.00.
- Bassett, John S. The middle group of American historians. N. Y.: Macmillan. 324 pp. \$2.00, net.
- Brooks, Eugene C. The story of corn and the westward migration. Chic. and N. Y.: Rand, McNally. 308 pp. \$1.00.
- Bruce, Philip A. Brave deeds of Confederate soldiers. Phila.: Jacobs. 351 pp. \$1.50, net.
- Draper Collection of Mss. Frontier advance on the upper Ohio, 1778-1779. Madison, Wis.: Wis. Hist. Soc. 509 pp. \$1.50.
- Dyer, James O. Historical sketch; comparison of the customs of wild tribes near Galveston a century ago with ancient Semitic customs. Galveston, Tex.: O. Springer Print. 12 pp. 25 cents.
- Earle, Swepson. Maryland's colonial eastern shore. Balto.: Med. Standard Bk. Co. 204 pp. \$3.50.
- Engelhardt, C. Anthony. The missions and missionaries of California. Index to Vols. 2-4. San Francisco: J. H. Barry Co. 186 pp. \$1.00.
- Fite, Emerson D. History of the United States. N. Y.: Holt. 575 pp. \$1.60.
- Green, Juliet M. Relations between the United States and Great Britain, 1776-1915. Los Angeles, Cal.: Hollywood Junior College. 62 pp. 25 cents, net.
- Griffin, Grace G. Writings on American History, 1914. New Haven: Yale Univ. 161 pp. \$2.00, net.
- James, General Thomas. Three years among the Indians and Mexicans. St. Louis, Mo.: Hist. Soc. 316 pp. (8 pp bibls.). \$5.00, net.
- Mayo, Katharine. The story of the Pennsylvania State Police. N. Y.: Putnam. 364 pp. \$2.50, net.
- Root, Elihu. Military colonial policy of the United States. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard Univ. 502 pp. \$2.00, net.
- Shelton, W. H. The Jumel mansion. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 242 pp. \$10.00, net.
- Stiles, Ezra. Extracts from the itineraries of Ezra Stiles, 1755-1794. New Haven: Yale Univ. 602 pp. \$3.00, net.
- Sullivan, Frank S. A history of Meade County, Kansas. Topeka: Kansas: Crane & Co. 184 pp. \$2.50.
- U. S. Treaties [Wilson]. Convention between the United States and Nicaragua; Nicaragua canal route. Wash., D. C. 6 pp. Treaty series No. 624.

### Ancient History.

- Harris, James R. The origin of the cult of Aphrodite. N. Y.: Longmans. 30 pp. 40 cents, net.
- Lanham, Fritz G. Putting Troy in a sack. Austin, Texas: Ex-students Association of the Univ. of Texas. 141 pp. \$5.00.
- Paton, Daniel, editor. Egyptian records of travel in Western Asia. Vol. 2. Princeton, N. J.: Princeton Univ. Press. 60 pp. \$7.50, net.

- Procopius of Caesarea. Procopius, in six vols. Vol. 2, History of the Wars, books 3 and 4. N. Y.: Putnam. 487 pp. \$1.50, net.
- Robinson, C. E. The days of Alkibiades. N. Y.: Longmans. 301 pp. \$1.50, net.
- Spence, Lewis. Myths and legends of Babylonia and Assyria. N. Y.: Stokes. 411 pp. \$3.00, net.
- Tatlock, Jessie M. Greek and Roman mythology. N. Y.: Century Co. 372 pp. \$1.50.

#### English History.

- East India Company. A calendar of the current minutes of the East India Company, 1655-1659. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. 387 pp. \$4.15, net.
- Mathieson, William L. Church and reform in Scotland; a history from 1797 to 1843. N. Y.: Macmillan. 373 pp. \$4.25, net.
- Ogilvy, James S. Relics and memorials of London City and London Town. 2 vols. N. Y.: Funk & Wagnalls. 597 pp. \$15.00, net.
- Stone, Gilbert. England, from the earliest times to the Great Charter. N. Y.: Stokes. 618 pp. \$3.00, net.
- Williamson, James A. The foundation and growth of the British Empire. N. Y.: Macmillan. 284 pp. 75 cents, net.

#### European History.

- Boudois, P., and Dufayard, Charles. Continental Europe from 1270 to 1598. N. Y.: Holt. 489 pp. \$2.00.
- Dillon, Emile Joseph. England and Germany. N. Y.: Brentano's. 311 pp. \$3.00, net.
- Fay, Sidney B. The Hohenzollern household and administration in the sixteenth century. Chaps. 1 and 2. Northampton, Mass.: Smith College, Dept. of Hist. 64 pp. (bibls.). 50 cents.
- Fleischman, Hector. Behind the scenes in the Terror. N. Y.: Brentano's. 339 pp. \$4.00, net.
- Kieffer, Geo. L., compiler. List of references on the history of the Reformation in Germany. White Plains, N. Y.: H. W. Wilson Co. 60 pp. 25 cents.
- Ramnaud, Alfred N. Russia, from the earliest times to 1882. 3 vols. Boston: Page Co. \$6.00.
- Slocumbe, G. E. Poland. N. Y.: Stokes. 316 pp. \$1.25, net.
- Waugh, W. T. Germany. N. Y.: Stokes. 404 pp. \$1.25, net.
- Zeleski, A., and others. Poland, its case for independence. N. Y.: Dodd, Mead. 352 pp. \$3.00, net.

#### The Great War.

- Alexander, John L. The secondary division organized for service. N. Y. & Chicago: Revell. 92 pp. 50 cents, net.
- Berger, Marcel. The ordeal by fire, by a sergeant in the French army. N. Y.: Putnam. 532 pp. \$1.50, net.
- Buchan, J. Nelson's History of the War, Vols. 8-14. N. Y.: T. Nelson and Sons. 60 cents, net, each.
- Buchan, John. The battle of Jutland. N. Y.: T. Nelson & Sons. 44 pp. 10 cents.
- Burke, Kathleen. The white road to Verdun. N. Y.: Doran. 168 pp. \$1.00, net.
- Bury, Herbert. Here and there in the war area. Milwaukee: Young Churchman. 328 pp. \$1.40.
- Cheradame, Andre. The Rangenman plot unmasked. N. Y.: Scribner. 235 pp. \$1.25, net.
- Doyle, Sir Arthur C. A history of the great war. Vol. 1, The British campaign in Flanders, 1914. N. Y.: Doran. 349 pp. \$2.00, net.
- Genevoix, Maurice. Neath Verdun, Aug.-October, 1914. N. Y.: Stokes. 309 pp. \$1.60, net.
- Great Britain, Admiralty. The battle of Jutland Bank, May 31-June 1, 1916. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. 95 pp. 25 cents.
- K'ung Yuan Ku'suh. The judgment of the Orient; some reflections on the Great War. N. Y.: Dutton. 71 pp. 60 cents, net.

## University of Colorado

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- Swope, Herbert B. Inside the German Empire, in the third year of the war. N. Y.: Century Co. 366 pp. \$2.00, net.
- Venzelos, Eleutherios. Greece in her true light. Brooklyn, N. Y. [S. A. Xanthaky, 1063 Prospect Ave.]. 288 pp. \$2.00.
- Washburn, Stanley. The Russian advance, June 5-September 1, 1916. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday, Page. 275 pp. \$1.25, net.
- Winslow, Carroll D. With the French flying corps. N. Y.: Scribner. 226 pp. \$1.25, net.

#### Miscellaneous.

- American Acad. of Soc. & Pol. Science. The purpose and ideals of the Mexican revolution. Phila.: The Academy. 31 pp.
- Bagley, W. C., and Rugg, H. O. The content of American history as taught in the seventh and eighth grades. Urbana, Ill. 59 pp.
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## CONTENTS

Field and Method of the Elementary College Course in History	-	III
Contributions by A. B. Show, W. A. Frayer, J. F. Baldwin, J. E. Wrench, M. R. Gutsch, E. A. Balch, R. H. George, C. H. Walker, H. R. Shipman, C. P. Gould, W. C. Harris, D. L. McMurry, C. J. H. Hayes, J. G. McDonald, A. H. Lybyer, and L. H. Gipson.		
What to Attempt in Collateral Reading, by W. W. Wuesthoff	- -	129
Periodical Literature, edited by Dr. G. B. Richards	- - -	131
History in Wisconsin High Schools, by Prof. W. J. Chase	- -	132
Reports from the Historical Field	- - - - -	134
Book Reviews, edited by Prof. W. J. Chase	- - - -	135
List of History Teachers' Associations	- - - -	137
Recent Historical Publications, listed by Dr. C. A. Coulomb	- -	138

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## Field and Method of the Elementary College Course

Official Report of the Conference Held at the American Historical Association Meeting  
at Cincinnati, December 27, 1916

### ACCOMPLISHED RESULTS AND FUTURE PROBLEMS IN THE TEACHING OF FRESHMAN HISTORY.

BY ARLEY BARTHLOW SHOW, LELAND STANFORD JUNIOR  
UNIVERSITY, CHAIRMAN OF THE CONFERENCE.

When I was asked to preside over this conference, I said that I would be glad to "call time and keep the peace;" but I was informed that something more than that was expected of the chairman, and so I am going to take just a few moments to call attention to certain phases of the matter before us.

These conferences have usually taken the form of experience meetings, and it is well that such should be the case; but having no unique experience to relate of my own, I have chosen to-day to talk on more general lines, namely, to indicate some of the results in a broad way which have already been gained by conferences and by experiences, and to point out very briefly a few directions in which I think it is desirable and reasonable to look for progress in the future.

The subject that we have before us to-day is not a new one; for at least three conferences upon this specific matter have been held in previous annual meetings of the Association. In the New York meeting of 1896 a general session was given up to the discussion of college teaching, not however particularly devoted to the first year's work. The first conference of that type was held in 1901 at Washington, and the matter was debated pro and con. In the brief reports of that conference that have been preserved for us certain very distinct tendencies are manifest. At that time it seems to have been true that the course in general European history was quite prevalent; but even fifteen years ago many of the devices which are now in standard use in colleges were already in use, such as the lecture, the quiz, reference reading, and various other aids and appliances.

In 1905, at the Baltimore and Washington meeting, another conference was held on the first year of college work. Here again there was a wide range of discussion. At the close of the discussion, the chairman, Professor Haskins, pointed out certain directions in which the discussion had gone. He said it was manifest, for one thing, that the emphasis was placed upon method rather than upon the substance or the field of the course. He said also that in his

judgment it was highly desirable to limit the field and not to make it too extensive.

Then in 1906, at the last of these conferences held until the present time at the Indianapolis meeting, Professor Farrand in the chair, the discussion again covered a wide range, but narrowed down somewhat to a discussion of the relative importance of what is called a sequence of courses and a sequence of methods; and the upshot of the matter, as summarized by the chairman, was that there is no fixed order in the sequence of courses; that in order to give it in an intelligent way there ought to be a chronological sequence in the college course; but that after all method is more important than fact; and that great allowance must be made for the varying conditions of different institutions and localities. That was the last pronouncement of the Association in any formal way till the present time. That was ten years ago.

However, we can say that these discussions have left an increment of permanent worth that has confirmed our suspicions about many things, and have sometimes enabled us to find vindication for certain methods and given us some degree of satisfaction of mind where otherwise we would have been disturbed.

Of course, during the decade that has elapsed since then we have learned much from our experience, and much that we have learned ought to come out in the discussion to-day. Nevertheless I think it may be said that all these conferences which we have had have not as yet crystallized into anything positive and concrete which we can put our hands upon and hold as established doctrine—certain results that we have reached and that we are not going to recede from—but as yet we cannot say that the first year of work in college has been standardized in any full degree. There is still room for experiment and for discussion.

Now I wish to say here, once and for all, that I recognize fully the limits of standardizing work of our type. Because we as individual teachers are jealous of our rights and of our liberties, we want to use our own resources and personalities as fully as we may in the direction of instruction. We shall not readily follow; we shall not readily call any man master, or any organization master. Still we want to leave the way open always for the fullness of light to break in from whatever source it may come. Consequently, in any-

thing that I might say about the need of standardizing our methods and ideals, and the possibility of so doing, I am speaking always with that reservation. So much, then, for the state of the case up to the present time.

Now just a very few words with regard to the outlook upon the future. The subject that we have before us to-day is dual in its character, dealing with the *field* of elementary instruction on the one hand, and the *method* on the other. These two aspects of the matter hardly cover the whole subject. There are various phases which would need to be embraced in a thoroughly comprehensive view of the matter, and which we cannot take our time here to-day to consider, although we need to define somewhat more clearly than we are doing the varying ideals, aims or purposes of our college instruction.

The students who come into our elementary classes represent almost every possible phase of preparation, almost every possible phase of outlook upon the future. We have not as yet perhaps clearly defined our own purposes and aims in relation to these students, as to just what we are seeking to accomplish for them.

In the secondary school, for example, we have pretty clearly settled the fact that the chief purpose of historical instruction is in its trend toward good citizenship. Can we define in any such clear way the purposes of college instruction? We can say that it is partly for good citizenship, it is partly for the development of general cultural aims, it is partly for the training of teachers of history, it is partly for the training of specialists; but the relative proportions of these and the adjustment of the relation of one to the other is a matter that has not yet been thoroughly worked out.

More important still is the question of a proper correlation of college work with the preceding work of students. Our articulation with the secondary schools, the land over, is very imperfect and very unsatisfactory. For example, we are not agreed at all as to how much weight should be given in our freshman course to the previous historical studies of the student. To a questionnaire which I sent out to thirty leading institutions, something over a year ago, I got all sorts of answers. The general tendency was to ignore the previous work of the students and introduce them to the elements. Now that answer may be a necessary one—I am inclined to think it is—in view of the present conditions in the secondary schools and in colleges; but I am quite certain that that cannot be the final answer to the matter. We must have a better solution than that. We must have a way to give due weight and significance to the work which has been done before we took the student in hand. We must adjust our elementary course to their needs to a greater or less degree.

Coming now to the matter directly before us to-day, the question of the *field* of college history and of the *method* of college history, here again the complete lack of uniformity is most striking. We are giving as an elementary course to our first-year students in this

country almost every subject in the historical curriculum, and every man is fully persuaded in his own eyes that the thing which he is doing is the best thing to do. We are at this point a long way from standardization; and with regard to this again it must be said that possibly we never can reach anything like uniformity; possibly it will have to be a kind of go-as-you-please. And still the man whose mind is built as much on lines of systematic tendencies as my own must hope that that time will come when we can more nearly see eye to eye.

In the abstract it seems indisputably true that some field of history is better adapted to the training of freshmen than any other, if we can find it; and so here I think we need to take counsel together and need to compare notes that we may learn from the experience of one another.

The ideal course for first-year students, for beginners in history in college, must of course fulfil certain requirements. It must have the best teaching materials and make available those teaching materials. It must appeal to the interest of students, and to do this must come within the reach of their understanding, and must lay foundations for their future work in history in an adequate way. This must be attained through a coherent course.

It is not my purpose to-day to attempt to point out the ideal field, but simply to say that until we have come more nearly together in our thinking and in our practice, this matter will remain an open question, in my judgment; and consequently I feel myself that this is perhaps the more important of the two questions before us to-day. The other (as to method) has received far more debate, and in its solution we have arrived far more nearly at a common opinion; but on this point relating to the field of instruction we are still, as I see it, very much at sea.

Just a word or two with regard to this matter of methods of instruction. The situation in this respect is very good, as I see it to-day. As I said at the beginning, we have come to an agreement about many of the large essentials. We no longer depend upon the text-book as the main-stay. The lecture system, with the quiz section, the conference, and all those devices, is in general use. We depend upon reference reading and written work of one type or another, and so on, for results. All this is established doctrine which is not likely to be overthrown by any experiences of the future. For many of these we shall not in my judgment find any substitutes that will be equally adequate. Here again we have, however, certain guiding principles which must be kept in view. Of these to my mind the first and perhaps the most important is that the personality of the teacher must never be forgotten. One man cannot lecture; another cannot do anything else. Each man must be allowed to work in his own way, and we cannot impose upon him a yoke of doctrine or dogma which shall in any way interfere with the freedom of his action in these things.

The ideal method must be a graded method. There must be progress from the first year to the last in the

methods employed; and I believe in this respect we are still very much at fault. We teach freshmen often by methods that are adapted to seniors, and seniors by methods that are adapted to freshmen; and we have not as yet worked out that sequence of methods by which we should get the best results along the entire line. At any rate, that is my judgment about it, and also my experience.

Then again in this matter we must have a proper balance of method and material, or method and fact. This is an old, old controversy, as old as the beginning of our teaching of history, as to whether we shall give historical information, or whether we shall train for what we call "power" or historical insight, or something of that kind. In my judgment, we have to seek both, and in due relation to one another. It is not knowledge or power, or even knowledge and power, but it is power through knowledge; and the proper method must take account of both. I am sure that none of us here believes in that kind of method which leaves in the mind of the student a knowledge of processes without any product, without any substratum of facts, or historical knowledge, or information, that has been gathered and stored away for permanent possession. So there are possibilities of improvement and growth in the field of method also.

I want to speak of one thing that is rather a hobby of mine, although I must say that it is a hobby I have never tried to put into effect. I believe we shall come in the course of years—perhaps before many years—to a larger degree of supervision over the study work—I do not mean class-room work—but over the study work of our history students in college. We shall come to something which, for want of a better term, one may call an historical laboratory. We owe that term practically to Professor MacDonald, of Brown University. What I mean is this, that the student shall work under the eye of the instructor, under some kind of guidance; that the student shall come into a laboratory or work-shop where he will be provided with his desk, and have all of his material around him, with a specific task to be worked out under the guidance of the instructor. Out in California, of course, we pride ourselves on our schools, and I do not know whether you back here in the middle portion of the country have caught up with us in this matter yet, or not. But out in California we are getting into our secondary schools what is known as supervised study. That is to say, instead of sending the child to a study-room or study-hall to prepare a lesson, the lesson is prepared under the eye of the teacher, and then recited; and the results that we have obtained by this method, so far as it has been employed up to date, are highly satisfactory. We shall come to adopt a similar plan, I think, in college work. I believe myself that when put upon a practical footing we shall be able to get fifty per cent. better results out of our elementary course than we are getting at the present time. Students do not know how to do the tasks that are assigned them. They need a far larger degree of guidance than we are giving them; and I believe that we can improve upon this situation

by making conditions right through supervision of their personal study.

Now let me refer to just one further point. Last year the Pacific Coast Branch of the Association adopted a resolution urging upon the parent Association the expediency of appointing a committee to bring in a report on the teaching of college history similar to the Report of the Committee of Seven on the field of secondary school work. This resolution was transmitted to the Executive Council, and I think they reported that while they did not see their way clear, because of financial reasons, to appoint such a committee at the present time, that they would be glad to have any light which this conference might throw upon that question. Consequently you will understand that we shall be glad to hear from any one here to-day who chooses to speak with regard to the wisdom of appointing a committee to gather up the results of our experience in formal shape. That question will be legitimate in the discussions of the hour.

## I. The Field

### THE FIELD OF THE ELEMENTARY COURSE.

BY WILLIAM A. FRAYER, UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN.

Whatever views we may hold as to the relative importance of scope and method, I think that most of us would prefer to speak about methods of study rather than about the field of study, because we have probably thought more about that phase of the subject.

I am afraid that I shall not be able to present anything that is new; and I am afraid that I shall not be able to make any very categorical answers to the questions that are proposed this afternoon; furthermore, I do not think it is at present possible to make any absolutely categorical answers.

Let me say with reference to what our chairman has already remarked. I believe the question of purpose should be taken up in connection with the question of field and of method. If it is true that secondary schools are teaching citizenship successfully through history, then we do not need to pay much attention to that; but I for one do not believe that the secondary schools are successfully doing this, and so I believe that we teachers of elementary history in our colleges and universities, especially the universities where there are large bodies of students, have before us at the present time an opportunity for public service which transcends almost any other opportunity in the teaching profession. But this is purely a secondary function, and it should not be forgotten that our primary function is always to teach history; and I for one would like to see some of the best men in our field drafted into that work. I believe that all of us who are younger and are made to serve our apprenticeship in this work, are learning very valuable lessons, but at the same time are creating possibly some havoc while we are learning these lessons. and I should like to see the novices tried out on something less important than the introductory courses in

history in our great institutions. Furthermore, I should like to see men prepared especially for this peculiarly difficult form of teaching in which there is often too much guess-work.

As Professor Show has pointed out, this question is in its infancy, because the whole matter of history teaching is still experimental. I wish to emphasize also the point that we are dealing with a course for immature students.

Now if we agree with Professor Gwatkin that there are three fairly definite steps in historical teaching, the first of which is to arouse interest, the second, to impart sound historical information, and the third, to teach sound methods of historical research and criticism, we must also agree that so far as introductory courses are concerned they must deal largely with the first two steps, with only a glimpse possibly of the third step; and throughout those three steps there must all the time run, in my opinion at least, the idea that the final, even though indirect, object of it all is not only to impart information or to make citizens, although these are of great importance, but also to develop certain human qualities, call them sympathy, call them imagination, call them tolerance, or what you will; but the development of these qualities is the ultimate goal which we cannot possibly evade. Once again, there are three steps in history teaching: (1) to stimulate interest; (2) to impart sound information; (3) to teach sound methods of historical research and criticism insofar as we can. The first two apply especially to the freshman; he cannot do much with the third, and therefore during the freshman year we must confine ourselves largely to the first two.

Under ideal conditions we would not have to pay much attention to the first; but our conditions are not ideal. The ideal students would be on fire with interest; but as these conditions do not prevail, we must first arouse their interest, and the method by which that interest has to be aroused is a matter of detail that I do not need to deal with here.

As to my own personal standpoint on that in connection with our experience at the University of Michigan, I should like to exonerate to a large extent the secondary school-teachers. There is too much recrimination between those who send and those who receive the freshmen. I believe that the entire fault is not with the teachers that send them to us, but is partly the result of general educational tendencies. Possibly the secondary school-teachers have carried a little too far the idea that the child is right in his likes and dislikes, but there are other reasons. Those of us who deal with freshmen are well aware of the general tendency in the direction of the modern field. I think that that tendency, along with much that is good, involves some very grave dangers. The demand for recent history, exclusively, it seems to me, is not at all a wholesome tendency from the standpoint of pedagogy. I will not say anything more about that; but let me say this, that our experience at the University of Michigan leads us to believe that many students who are clamoring for contemporary history, so called, are the very students who do not read the

newspapers; in other words, are interested neither in the present nor in the past.

As to specific answers to these three questions: First, "Should the same field be offered as a first course for all students?" I should say "Yes," with two provisos; and this would be my own personal answer to the question; of course there are many possible answers. I should say the same field should be possible and should be offered to the first year students, first, if numbers will permit it, and, second, if you have just the right man. At the University of Michigan, we have about 750 students taking freshman history, and we do not believe 750 students should be brought into a single course. We offer them three courses, therefore, and believe that several courses may well be given, provided that the right men are available to give them effectively. Otherwise, I should say "No," most emphatically. It is not always possible to have just the right man for the place, a man who is both able and willing—because there are a good many men who are able but not willing to make the sacrifices that would be required in taking the time from their own research and from their own more satisfactory teaching experience, possibly connected with advance students. So that my answer will be "Yes, if numbers will permit, and you have the right man."

As to the second question, "If only one, what field should be chosen?" at present although we wish, Mr. Chairman, that we were in position to give a positive answer, I believe it is impossible to say. That course is best in any institution which enables that institution to work most effectively. At the present time it makes no great difference, in my opinion, whether that course be in ancient history, or whether it be in the modern field, so long as it is effectively given through the best available means. I think that on the whole probably the best case can be made out for the field of medieval and modern history, not modern alone, not medieval alone, but both. I hope that point can be discussed and be shown to be either right or wrong.

"If more than one, what alternatives should be allowed?" Here again it is impossible under present conditions to give a categorical answer; but if more than one is given I should say that this might be chosen probably from among several alternatives; first, medieval and modern; second, medieval; third, modern; in the fourth place, the general field; but I would not care to insist upon this order. The English, ancient, and other special fields, I should like to defer to a later year in the curriculum when the methods to be employed are more advanced and better suited to more mature students.

### THE ELEMENTARY COURSE AT VASSAR COLLEGE.

BY JAMES F. BALDWIN, VASSAR COLLEGE.

Following the rule that the chairman has wisely laid down, I shall speak entirely from experience in my own college. Ten years ago I thought it was a dogma based on tradition that the beginning course in history should be European, general, medieval, or

medieval and modern, however it might be defined. I have since learned that nothing can be held by tradition, and that criticisms and questions are being raised as to the merits of such a course. Have we been giving too much attention to the Roman Empire? Do we need a survey of the Middle Ages? Are we modern enough? Would it be better to begin with English or American history? are some of the questions in point.

Now there are certain reasons, strong enough, we think, that lead us to maintain the traditional course, if it be such, in Vassar College. One is, that since it is a compulsory course, required of all students either in their freshman or sophomore year, which is taken as a matter of fact by freshmen more than by sophomores, the course has a special relationship to the college curriculum as a whole. For it is to be considered as introductory not merely to the study of history, but to college work in general. For this purpose it seems to us that European history, as compared with English or American, has a marked advantage in that it is related to the greatest number of subjects taught in the college. French, German, English, Latin, Philosophy and Art are all given something of a background or starting-point in general history. If we were to split up the general course into a variety of alternative courses in history, as is sometimes proposed, I have little doubt that the faculty would soon question the propriety of maintaining history as a required subject. The department would then not only lose a proportion of students in history, it would fail also in making this contribution, that we deem of great value, to the general college work. Conditions may be different, I grant, in a large university like Michigan, where great diversities in the student body are to be met, but I am speaking of a college where the classes are fairly homogeneous.

Furthermore, it seems to me that the beginning course, whatever its content may be, should be that which best inculcates certain fundamental ideas, in this case historical concepts. In the fall of the Roman Empire, for example, there is the lesson that out of destruction there comes construction and readjustment, while evolution and devolution go on simultaneously. No study bears out this thought so well as the course which connects present and modern times with the great civilization of the past. Such a connection is never so vividly shown in the detached history of England and America.

Another concept derived from the study of European history, of even higher value than that just mentioned, is internationalism, or, rather, the negation of nationalism. Conceptions of the present day are intensely national, while current events testify to an age of national bigotry and its resultant evils. But in the history of the world nations are in fact of recent and casual growth. If we would have a historical course that puts things in their true perspective, it must not be local or national, but general.

Again, foremost among the lessons to be learned from history, I believe, is a sense of time. That is to say, not dates or chronology alone, though these may help, but time as measured by what is accomplished.

Just as the geologic ages are defined by their deposits, so the periods of history, whether they be long or short, are marked by the things that are done. This idea in its fulness does not come from the study of a single period or a short space of time; even the three centuries of modern times is not enough. We need a perspective of the whole of European history and comparative views of one century or cycle with another. In this point a course in English history has manifest advantages over one in American history.

As to the attack that is being made upon the course in general history, I know of none within our college itself. The criticism, or question, comes entirely from without, particularly from the schools that prefer not to give the natural prerequisite of the course. The preliminary requirement has been ancient history. But the high schools, while they are giving up the classics, are less and less inclined to teach ancient history. Where they are teaching it at all, they give it early in the school course farthest away from the student's present memory. There is a tendency, too, to allow for ancient history a shorter time than formerly, that is, three hours a week instead of five; so that existing standards become harder and harder to live up to. Shall the college therefore modify its requirement of ancient history? Under pressure from the New York City schools, which are teaching ancient history hardly at all, but are giving an excellent course in medieval and modern history, we have at length yielded to the extent of recognizing the latter course as a substitute for ancient history. Although it is but a temporary expedient, it probably forecasts a policy of alternative requirements in the future. Whether we shall go so far as to accept English or American history as similar alternatives, is less certain. An influence in this direction is felt from Bryn Mawr, whose preparatory schools are giving English instead of classical history. But for the sake of the homogeneity of our college classes, we have not as yet let down the bars further in the way of alternative entrance requirements.

Thus the department is in the somewhat illogical position of receiving into its first course students of diverse preparation, some with ancient history and some with medieval and modern. The latter are going over the same ground twice. Is there danger here, between school and college, of duplication of work? In other departments, such as mathematics and language, there has been complaint of unnecessary duplication. But thus far in history no student has been found to be so surfeited with knowledge as to find the college course going over the ground a second time repetitious or uninteresting; she has in fact rather profited from the new point of view and method of the college teacher. If the need should arise, the students might be grouped, according to their previous training, in different sections without affecting the unity of the course. So that for all these reasons the integrity of the general course in European history, dating from the later days of the Roman Empire to the nineteenth century, required of all students in their first or second year, is likely to be maintained in our college for some years to come.



## SCOPE AND PURPOSE OF THE ELEMENTARY COURSE.

BY JESSE E. WRENCH, UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI.

The previous speakers have covered in the main much of the ground that I should like to cover. I was especially interested in the remarks of the chairman concerning the chaotic condition of the teaching of history. I suppose all of us are familiar with those text-books of high school history which label themselves, "For high schools and colleges." It speaks rather ill for our pedagogy that we are willing to accept such things and use them for high school and college class work. We cannot blame the poor teachers in high schools, because they have to take what the publishers send them; but it is a wonder that we are willing as college teachers of history to write such text-books, because the majority of the various texts that appear in that way bear the name of some one or the other of us. I am not directly but indirectly guilty myself as to one of these things; so I can speak with some feeling in the matter.

It seems to me that our course in History I is by far the most important course, to put it very platonically. In order to understand what we ought to give in this course, it is perhaps necessary to find out what exactly is its function. Mr. Frayer has said in his brief remarks some very pertinent things about what we ought to try to do; but I would like to look further than that and see just exactly what relationship the proper course should bear to the whole curriculum. You see, we teachers have been rather enthusiastic in our point of view in regard to this matter. We have looked at it entirely from our own standpoint, when we have spoken about the personality of the teacher as the dominant thing in determining what should be the type of course and the kind of work given in history. Will they stand for that sort of thing in economics, or in language, or even in the classics? Of course not!

Now then, History I, it seems to me, fulfills a double function. In most colleges—in every one with which I am conversant—History I is almost always a required course, and its value is recognized in furthering the work of other departments, such as social science. The previous speaker has just spoken of its immense value in advancing other college work. It seems to me that is one of the things which must be taken into consideration in determining what shall be the field of History I, namely, its function in the university work.

In the second place, it seems to me that, since so many people in it are forced into it, we should take into consideration that these people are not in it because they want to be, but because they have to be in it; and therefore this course should be an attractive course. In order to be an attractive course it has further got to be something new, or something decidedly startling. In order to be something new you have got to go back to something that is relatively remote in a freshman's mind. The freshman comes up from high school as a rule with his last course in

American history. Therefore to put him into American history at once would be illogical, because he has just been over that ground, perhaps very much at first hand.

This course should be flexible. I would not by any means rule out the personality of the teacher. It seems to me that personality plays a very large part, although I would go so far as to say that if a person cannot do anything but lecture he has no business in teaching History I. I would not like to say that lecturing has no part in a History I program. It does give opportunity for the personality of the teacher. But we should not try, by telling the student this, that, or the other thing, to make him or her a historian at the first shot. In fact, I was told only this morning about a course in history in which the average student was extremely disgusted, because there was so much pedantic effort in it. The method must be flexible in that it gives opportunity for the student to utilize some of his own ideas. Therefore it must have a field that is sufficiently broad, a scope that is broad enough to let other things in; therefore the field must not be too limited, because in a limited field you are going very much into details. Details, it seems to me, often injuriously affect the freshman's point of view. Turn the freshman loose on any one of these parallel source-books on the matter of details, and see where he gets with it. He cannot handle details; he only sees large things; so this course must cover relatively large things.

This course must be efficient in that it gets somewhere. We have already heard what various things it has tried to do; but it seems to me that the course in History I, which is very largely for people who never take any more history, should get somewhere. Fifty or sixty per cent. of our own students in Missouri never take another course in history. The place for it does not permit of the assimilation of too many of the facts of history. Those facts that it does deal with should come out somewhere so as to connect with the present time and not drop off at 1870; because I disagree with that body of historians who feel that modern history leaves off at 1870 and everything after that is merely contemporary politics.

This course, then, should have the three characteristics of attractiveness, flexibility, and efficiency.

Now as to the possible fields of history that the course should deal with, it seems to me that there are three possible solutions; first, general history, covering the whole field from the cave man to Bismarck, as some one has so facetiously put it. Then there is another field of medieval-modern history, whose claims have been already presented by Mr. Frayer. Last of all, there is the modern history field.

It seems to me that we must take into consideration the question of the time that can be given to history. In our university we spend five hours a week for one semester. It is obviously impossible to get over the whole field of general history in that time. It might be possible to cover that field in a three-hour course given throughout the year where we have some time for elimination; but with a course that gives five hours

a week for a semester it is impossible to cover that general field. If it were possible to cover, it would be an ideal field, because this course in general history is the one that gives opportunity, if any, to the student really to comprehend what history is. I know there is a great deal of difference of opinion as to exactly what history is. It seems to me that the great and vital thing is the light that it throws on human development. The one thing that we get through the student's head by a proper history course is that idea of development—if we get it through his head at all. The difficult thing is to get that conception of gradual development and transformation that only a general course can really give us. We shall have to assume that the student has acquired, before you start out with him, a lot of things that you have not had time to teach him, and which you can only just briefly hint at in a course on medieval-modern history. Because for practical purposes I think that we must in the limited time at our disposal confine ourselves to medieval and modern, or modern with enough emphasis on the medieval to get the development point of view—the point of view of development extending over a long period of time. Otherwise the important effect of the beginning history is lacking. So I would put forth my plea for medieval and modern history, with a certain amount of emphasis on the medieval period.

Now shall there be one, or more, courses of history? I think it is time that we set our foot down for one course. We have been working at cross-purposes too long. We have been giving this and that history, and depending upon personality or situation too much.

In order to maintain our position in the college curriculum it seems to me that we should start out with some basic ideas of work and establish our theory on a sound scientific basis. We must have our developmental work. This developmental idea, as our chairman has said, should begin with our sophomore and go through the junior and senior work. I speak from personal experience in that matter. When I was in one of the great universities of the land I was slammed into a graduate course in the very early part of my career, and I have always felt a tremendous lack in a certain fundamental field that never should have been allowed to take place. But it does take place in many of our great institutions, simply because we have not a scientific standard of teaching, but are following a hit or miss sort of plan, depending too much upon the personality of the teacher.

### THE FIELD OF INSTRUCTION IN ELEMENTARY COLLEGE HISTORY.

BY MILTON R. GUTSCH, UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS.

The first year college course in history ought to have five qualifications. It ought to be suited for elementary training in the methods of historical study. The content ought to be inclusive enough to make it a foundation for general courses in other fields or advanced courses in the same field of history. Its scope ought to be sufficiently extensive to give the student a general conception of history as a whole, and on the

other hand sufficiently restricted to permit intensive study of typical institutions and significant movements. It ought to meet in subject matter, as far as possible, the recommendations of other departments and the consequent demands of the students in those departments; and lastly, it ought to emphasize by its content the relation between the high school and the university.

That the first year course ought to teach the student the elementary processes of historical study, requires no argument. If this is properly done it will make unnecessary the duplication and reduplication of such elementary instruction in the subsequent courses, and at the same time, provide a good working equipment for that large group of students who at the end of one or two years leave the university to take up the teaching profession. Both ancient history and medieval history are well adapted to meet this requirement, since the source materials with which they deal are condensed in form and content. English history is even better fitted for such elementary instruction. The sources are easily accessible, most of them can be used in the original language, and they are so diverse in form that the student gets a far better opinion of the character of historical materials than he can in either ancient or medieval history.

Secondly, the information imparted in the freshman course in history ought to be sufficiently extensive to form a good, solid foundation for any general course in another field or any advanced course in the same field of history. In this respect general history and English history alone qualify. English history, however, is really general history applied to a restricted geographical area. It adapts itself readily as a foundation course for ancient history, to which it is connected by the prehistoric remains, by the contact with the Greek colony of Marseilles and by the conquest of the Cæsars. The connection between England and the continent is even closer in medieval and modern times, and the institutions and movements of the latter are reflected in the former. For American history, English history as a background is absolutely essential. In all respects, therefore, English history is as well suited for a foundation course as is general history.

The first year course in history, furthermore, ought to give the student both a general conception of history as a whole, and a somewhat detailed knowledge of one of its divisions. The majority of students take no more than one course in history, and they take that for "general culture" as they call it. What they want is information, condensed in form, general in its nature, covering the whole field of history. General history, nevertheless, is too extensive. The student loses the thread of unity, and becomes hopelessly confused by a superficial study of innumerable movements and institutions, none of which he really understands. English history, on the other hand, is not open to these objections. It presents a general survey of history as a whole, and at the same time develops the history of a particular area with some detail. It is neither too general nor too technical.

Moreover, the freshman course in history ought to be selected with some regard to the recommendations of other departments and schools. Ancient history has the approval of the classical departments, but it can be taken as advantageously in the sophomore year as in the freshman. English history in many institutions is recommended or prescribed by the schools of law or commerce. Students in these schools begin to specialize in the second year. Consequently, the logical place for history in their programs is in the first year.

Lastly, the first year course in history ought to emphasize by its content the relation between the high school and the university. There seems, however, to be no definite connection between the number of courses in history a student has had in the high school and the proficiency he displays in the same subject in the university as measured by grades. On the basis of statistics, covering the grades of first year students for five years at the University of Texas, the student with three high school history courses does almost as well as the student with four courses, but not as well as the student with two courses who has the best record of all. The number of passes for four-course students is approximately seventy per cent.; for three-course students, sixty-nine per cent.; and for two-course students, seventy-two per cent. There is, however, a marked difference between these groups and the two groups comprising those students who have received entrance credit for but one course in history or for none at all. Of the 2,475 students examined, 452 had received no entrance credit in history and 18 had received credit for only one course. Of these two groups, 58 per cent., barely half, succeeded in passing the first year history course in the university. This failure cannot be attributed alone, however, to the fact that they had had little or no history in a high school of good standing; nor can it be argued that four courses in history give the student a certain pedagogical form as a result of which he will do better in university history than the student who has had but one course. The 452 students are students who entered the university on individual approval, without entrance examination or high school diploma. They are poorly prepared in everything. They have as much difficulty with their other courses as they have with history. A large part of this group withdraws from the university shortly after admission. The data for those students who have had but one course in history are insufficient to permit any conclusion. University history teachers agree, however, that the less attention given to any field of history in the high school, the better will be the claim of that field to recognition in the first year university curriculum. An examination of 2,475 students in the University of Texas who enrolled in freshman history between 1911 and 1916, showed that 1,979, or 80 per cent., had had ancient history in the high school; 1,911, or 77 per cent., medieval and modern; 1,886, or 56 per cent., American, and only 946, or 38 per cent., English. Four-fifths had had ancient, three-fourths medieval and modern, almost three-fifths American,

but only a little more than a third English. If high school history work really counts for anything, and if conditions elsewhere approximate those in Texas, then duplication can be avoided for two-thirds of the students entering the university each year, by offering English history as the first year course.

In view of these facts, the writer has arrived at the conclusion that the same field ought to be offered as a first year course for all students, and that that field ought to be English history.

## THE ELEMENTARY COURSE IN THE SMALL COLLEGE.

BY ERNEST A. BALCH, KALAMAZOO COLLEGE.

I have been looking in vain for a representative of the small college to appear on this program—for the man who has not only to teach freshmen, but has to teach sophomores, juniors and seniors as well.

I am situated just that way; yet I have been able to do two of the things mentioned here this afternoon as being impracticable. First, I do not give all my first-year students the same course of study, regardless of preparation. I have about 75 students taking first-year history. These I have sectioned in this way: Those who have not had medieval history in the high school I put into a section which I start with the medieval period and hurry them through both medieval and modern history to the fall of Napoleon in one semester. Those who have had medieval history in high school I start with the sixteenth century and proceed more intensively. This year we began with 1500 A. D., using Professor Hayes' book—one semester through the Napoleonic period. During the second semester the two sections will be pursuing the same work, namely, the period from the Congress of Vienna to the present time.

The second thing I have been able to do is to use with freshmen classes such parallel source-studies as have been published. I devote one hour per week to this work. A good deal of the material is worked over in class, but the student has to finish the task by himself. I believe that the work has paid; at least, that is what those who have done the work with me have said. The students are able to work out these problems, and when they have constructed a historical narrative—more or less crude, of course, but their own—they take a good deal of pride in it. They have learned some of the principles of historical criticism, and as one student said recently, "Something of the immense task it is to write true history." I think this is worth while.

I would like to have some one else talk from the point of view of the small college man.

## II. The Method

### THE METHOD OF THE ELEMENTARY COURSE IN COLLEGE HISTORY.

BY ROBERT H. GEORGE, YALE UNIVERSITY.

At the very outset, let me voice my belief that there is grave danger of being too didactic in the enunciation of the theories of method. It is my opinion that the

special powers of a lecturer or group of lecturers in a given institution may more properly determine the choice of method to be there followed than the most complete and elaborate of theories. Such value as may be possessed by the theories which I have to offer lies, therefore, in the fact that they have proven valuable in certain situations whose elements, or some of them, may possibly be duplicated elsewhere. Neither singly nor collectively do they savor of the panacea.

First of all, since methods are largely determined by the end in view, what is the purpose of the elementary course in history? It can be made to perform two functions. It can make the student familiar with some of the main events and movements of the historical field involved. It can also—and this is the greatest service the course may hope to render—it can also develop the intelligence of the student; it can foster something akin to historical-mindedness in his approach to matters historical and political.

It is with this second function of the course that I wish especially to deal. How should the course be conducted if the intelligence as well as the memory of the students is to be developed? Memory may be cultivated by a continuation of those methods with which all too many have been made familiar in their preparation for college. Such methods give special attention to assignments in text-books with emphasis on black type and italics, to rigid outlines, and to frequent tests of memory by means of short papers and recitations. But the college course in history, even if it be the elementary course, is not functioning properly if it merely continues along these lines. Some new stimuli must be applied, if intelligence and appreciation, as well as memory, are to be developed.

To my mind the greatest stimulus which may be brought to bear upon the student is that furnished by reading of other than text-book character. I do not mean to advocate the abandonment of the text-book, which I consider the best means of acquainting the student with the necessary minimum of facts. But I am convinced that prescribed reading in the best of text-books must constantly be supplemented by reading of another sort, if the course is to fulfil its main purpose. Such reading may be found in special chapters of the more advanced text-books. It may be such unusual source material as Einhard's "Charlemagne," or Jocelin of Brakelonde, or Benvenuto Cellini's "Autobiography." It may be the work of one of the literary historians—Macaulay's "Frederick the Great," for example. It may consist in extracts from scholarly works—such extracts as Munro and Sellery have placed at our disposal. Or it may be found in books of the type of Dill's "Roman Empire," Haskins' "Normans," or Johnston's "Napoleon." But wherever found the value of such reading is the same. It forces the student to think for himself, or at least to make an intellectual effort of a different character from that required to master a text-book chapter; especially if that chapter be predigested. Usually, also, such reading deals quite as much with ideas as with facts, and possesses some literary value.

In so doing it stresses what Trevelyan calls "the intellectual and emotional values of history"—an emphasis which does much to rob the elementary study of history of its proverbially dry character.

To be sure, students will flounder about in such reading for a time, especially if they be unused to this type of mental exercise. But floundering in Dill or in Einhard in the early days of the course is productive of intellectual growth, and is, furthermore, almost certain to furnish materials for stimulating discussion.

This leads me to my second theory. I have come to believe that under ordinary circumstances classes may most profitably be conducted by the discussion method. This does not place a ban on informal lecturing, but a good share of the solid work of the course is done by discussion in which students and instructor co-operate. But this, you say, is merely the recitation method! So it is if the students are acquainted merely with text-book facts. If their historical field of vision be thus limited the class meeting may, in spite of informal lecturing, become as mechanical as recitations limited in subject to questions propounded to the student at the end of each text-book chapter he has read. If, however, such reading as that which I have indicated be made available, the student is in a position to participate in discussion. Such discussion can be made to strengthen the stimulus which the student's appreciative faculties have received from the reading, and further to develop an intelligent approach to history and politics.

Written tests may be made to serve the same end. Accuracy of memory may be tested by very short papers, but if the student's intelligent grasp of the subject is to be tested, twenty- or better thirty-minute papers are necessary. In a period shorter than twenty minutes it is virtually impossible to develop an idea and properly to express it, and the intelligent development and expression of ideas is, I hold, one great aim of the elementary course in history. Incidentally, weekly papers of this length with their demand for thought and careful expression are of great value, for students are prone to endeavor to meet the conditions of the test, and if intelligence as well as memory be required, they are reasonably quick to cultivate intelligence.

Collateral reading offers still another opportunity for the theories already outlined to be brought into play. Each student should, I believe, be required to read extensively in books of an advanced character on, let us say, four topics during the course of the year. In such reading he should be encouraged to look for ideas and points of view, as well as for salient facts, and to develop the faculty of reading a serious book and assimilating its general content. The most informal discussion in groups of four or five will, I am certain, both test and encourage such reading, and, furthermore, develop an intimate relationship between instructor and student which may prove of the greatest value.

So far I have said nothing of that organization which is so essential to the success of an elementary course covering an extensive field. However, I would

cut this organization down to the necessary minimum. The student universities of Bologna early discovered the necessity of insisting that the masters fulfil their contracts: that they cover the entire field of the course with proper distribution of emphasis. If this result is ever to be obtained, a chart of the course is necessary, but the roughest of charts will suffice. Some sort of stabilizer is necessary, too, to keep the craft steady upon its charted course and to insure safe and prompt arrival in the final port.

Such a rough chart and such a stabilizer are furnished by the simplest variety of syllabus. This should, in my estimation, contain merely a list of the larger topics to be considered together with the prescribed reading on each and a list of subjects available for collateral reading. This is, I believe, sufficient to indicate to the student the general direction in which he is traveling, and to keep the instructor from dwelling too long on a loved topic with disastrous results as regards the final weeks of the course. I do not believe in furnishing a topical outline with the syllabus, for I am convinced that the only valuable outline is that which the student himself evolves on the basis of his reading and of class discussion.

There are difficulties a-plenty to be overcome in carrying into execution such theories as these. A sufficient teaching staff must be provided to handle the large course in sections of twenty-odd, if the discussion method is to prosper. The work of the various instructors must in some measure be correlated. Books must be provided in considerable numbers, if the plan of offering reading of an advanced nature is to be followed. Books must also be made accessible for reading on collateral topics. The instructor must be willing to sacrifice a considerable amount of time to small group-conferences on collateral reading. And, above all, there must be developed in the students a new attitude towards their reading and class exercises. But all these difficulties can be overcome, and by the application of some of these theories the elementary course in history may profit.

### THE METHOD OF THE ELEMENTARY COURSE IN COLLEGE HISTORY.

By CURTIS HOWE WALKER, UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO.

The following paper deals with "The Method of the Elementary Course in College History" as we have had experience of the matter at the University of Chicago. It aims, *first*, to give a brief outline of the situation at Chicago; *second*, to emphasize what, to the writer, seem some of the strong points of the system; *third*, to suggest one line at least along which improvement might well be sought. I turn to a consideration of the first topic.

Experience at Chicago early led to the abandonment of the system in which the class as a whole is brought together once or twice a week for a lecture, and then split up into quiz sections. For this system was substituted that which we now have. This consists in dividing the class permanently into sections of thirty to thirty-five, and giving each of these sections into the sole charge of one person. To these instructors,

who grade from teaching-fellow up to associate professor, is given practically free rein to do as they will. The only limitations on their own initiative and wish are (1) a common agreement as to text-books, (2) the use of the "Study Manual," and (3) a general understanding that, in the conduct of the work, discussion is to predominate over lecture.

The "Study Manual" outlines the subjects which are to be taken up week by week, and gives the reading, prescribed and collateral, for those subjects. Since the number of books to which reference is made, under the head of "Collateral Reading," averages per week between twenty-five and thirty, to say nothing of half-a-dozen volumes referred to under the head of "Contemporary Literature," each instructor has a wide latitude of choice. No attempt is made in the "Manual" to prescribe the way in which the weekly subjects shall be taken up.

As to reviews, written tests, and final examinations, each man is left free to do as he wishes. No attempt is made to come to an agreement upon a final examination paper, although there has been once in a while an *ex post facto* meeting to discuss the examinations set by each man, with a view to finding out what the various instructors are doing, so that each may profit by the experience of all.

Such, in brief, is the general outline of the method adopted at Chicago for the handling of the elementary history course. I wish next to emphasize what seem to me to be some of the strong points of the system.

In the first place, the system avoids the pitfalls of professionalization, as exemplified especially by the too technical use of sources, and by the term-paper with elaborate notes and bibliographical equipment. I am old-fashioned enough still to believe in a general education as a prerequisite for the person who wishes to attain a high place in his special line, be it business, medicine, law, art, or scholarship. And it is, furthermore, as a part of this general education that the elementary course in college history, as I conceive it, has its place. It seems to me that this fundamental aspect of the elementary history course cannot be emphasized too strongly, for it should condition and guide the aims of all those engaged in teaching such a course. If this fact were held constantly in mind, history teachers would less often stray into the pitfalls of professionalization.

Again, on the positive side, the course at Chicago is strong because, in the words of our chairman, it uses the whole apparatus of outside reading "to satisfy the larger needs of all the members of the class."

Perhaps, before developing this point, I should say, by way of explanation, that, in the administration of the books available for outside reading, two changes have recently been introduced that noticeably increase the efficiency of the work. In the first place, a scheme has been devised which enables us to permit the students to have direct access to the shelves on which the reserved books are kept, so that they may exercise some choice in securing their books. The other change, or perhaps better, innovation, consists in making up sets of six or eight books, selected from

those most essential for any one term, and renting these out to the students for a dollar or two a term.

Operating with these modifications, the strong side of our collateral reading work consists in the relatively free play given the student in his choice of reading matter. The list for each week offers the student a choice from many kinds of books. Furthermore, to a very considerable degree, the student is left free to read that part of a book which he particularly wishes, since very frequently the reference is merely to the book as a whole, or to groups of chapters, and only rarely to restricted page references. Such freedom in the choice and use of books is, doubtless, both a privilege and a peril. The student, unless he already has done a good deal of independent reading for himself, is apt to get swamped or snagged in his first attempts. Nevertheless, this is just the kind of exercise that he needs most, and that is most profitable for him at this stage of his development. With proper guidance, he soon rights himself, and begins to gain in that *power of selection and judgment* which Matthew Arnold so forcefully and so justly emphasized as among the most fundamental and valuable intellectual qualities that can be developed by training.

In developing these qualities, much doubtless depends on the character of the notes that the students are required to take on the reading, and there is to be found among us in this matter a wide diversity of practice. Most of us, while still requiring for certain kinds of books and from certain kinds of students analytical or graphical outlines and digests of material, are more inclined to substitute briefer reports on the nature of the ground covered during the week, informal topical reports or essays, and, particularly, *summaries of impressions*, rather than summaries of all the matter in a reference. In training students to write summaries of their impressions obtained from the week's reading, they are advised to take whatever notes they wish for themselves, digests, outlines, incidental jottings, as the case may be. Then, when the reading for the week has been finished, to sit down and, either with or without the aid of the notes already taken, try to give the instructor an idea of what the reading for the week has meant for them along the line of suggestions, new angles on more or less familiar things, new ideas about the immediate subject in hand or about social development in general, new subjects of interest, new characters, or new books. If a student is afraid that his report to the instructor doesn't sufficiently indicate the ground that has been covered, he can hand in both sets of notes, those taken for himself and the report written for the instructor. The advantages of this type of report over the more familiar digest and outline are various. Chief among these is the fact that the emphasis is placed on the *knowledge* the student has gained during the week rather than on the amount of informational sawdust he may have industriously heaped up. Such a report, even if brief and inadequate, at least is vital, and gives the instructor just the kind of opening he wants in dealing with the particular needs of each individual

student. Especially does it enable the instructor to help the student to manipulate the collateral reading to his own best advantage, to choose the books that will mean most to him; perhaps even to read along the line of some special interest, not expressly provided for in the syllabus, but the pursuit of which may be the means of unlocking for the first time for that particular student the reality and meaning that is to be found in the historical process as a whole.

One strives naturally for devices to make the student feel the *reality* of the thing about which he is studying. One such device that some of us have employed, and that has secured excellent results, has been that of the *imaginative* theme. In one such theme, the writer, who was a girl, represents her heroine as a noble heiress, doomed by King John of England, to marry one of his unscrupulous adherents, for whom, all unwittingly as it appeared later, she chose no less a name than that of "Henry James." To this distinguished villain she was to be married on the no less distinguished date of June 15, 1215. When "rosy-fingered dawn" began ushering in the course of this historic day, the heroine is discovered as a prisoner in a tower room, against the door of which she has, with desperate valor, piled all the scanty furniture that medieval life afforded, determined to resist to the last, in spite of the fact that her lover, one of the revolting barons, had, in desperation, advised her to yield to John's demands. Slowly the day dragged out its weary course, when suddenly, from the window, she perceived her lover in the distance, breathlessly urging his horse forward at full speed. Anxiously she waited for his approach, hope faintly struggling with her fears. She was not long left in doubt, for, no sooner were horse and rider within earshot, than her lover, waving his hand triumphantly aloft, shouted to her exultantly that the barons had just compelled John to sign the Magna Charta in which he promised to give up the odious practice of which she had been about to be the victim, and that, therefore, they were free to marry. In a transport of joy she hurled herself from the window into his arms, and was borne off at a gallop, rejoicing! Whatever cavils one may raise as to the accuracy of minor details in this picture, one is forced to admit that the writer has come to appreciate as real at least one aspect of feudal law and practice in the Middle Ages.

The strong points of the system at Chicago, as they appear to the writer, are, therefore, that it avoids the pitfalls of professionalization; that the collateral reading is so administered that it tends to widen the student's vision, develop his powers to get from a book the thing he wants from it, and to reveal the meaning and fascination of history to those to whom history has remained, hitherto, a closed book.

I wish now, passing over a number of things to which I should like to advert by way of criticism, to take up my third topic which relates to the *teaching of historical geography*.

There is no doubt that this subject is being ineffectively taught, not only at Chicago, but also at the great majority of our educational institutions, high



and low. The reasons for this state of things, I should like, in closing, briefly to suggest.

In the first place, the subject is by nature difficult, because it is concerned primarily with conceptions of space, and, therefore, calls more continuously and more insistently for the exercise of the faculty of visualization than does the general run of historical facts. In the second place, the geography teachers in the elementary and high schools fail to teach geography. Thirdly, the history teacher has been trained as a history teacher, rather than as a teacher of geography, and hence feels out of his element in trying to deal with geographical facts and bring them home to the student. In the fourth place, the teacher is handicapped by the character of the maps at his disposal, both for use on wall, and in text and atlas. The majority of these maps are built on a totally wrong principle, inasmuch as they all emphasize boundary line at the expense of physical feature. They do this both by the use of very heavy black markings and by color, with the result that distinctive features, such, for example, as the Vosges and the Meuse, are obscured or disappear altogether. Furthermore, the scale used for maps in text and atlas is often so small as to make the map of little value. In the fifth place, and finally, the methods used by the history teacher are often inadequate and frequently poorly applied. To begin with, the end to be attained is not conceived with sufficient clearness. This, undoubtedly, should be to teach the student to think in terms of physical features, and to associate, in his thinking, boundary line and physical feature. As a result, there is failure to make sufficient use of physical maps both in the presence of the class and in assignments. Likewise, in the use of outline maps, there is insufficient emphasis laid on the *labelling* of physical features, and the student is allowed to follow the evil example of the historical maps in text and atlas, laying in his boundary line with a heavy hand and revelling in color. In the second place, practically every teacher places an overdependence on the wall-map, but the wall-map is a broken reed, for only a few of the class are near enough to get anything from it. Again, many teachers who make students fill out outline maps, do not require them to be able to reproduce their material from memory. This omission is fatal. Then, too, the outline map method itself, is, at best, far from satisfactory, since it fails to give the student much real knowledge of permanent character. Finally, while there is a general appreciation of the sketch-map method as the only device, yet in use, that really forces the student to get a grasp of the matter, the lack of training in drawing, both on the part of the teacher and student, has hitherto prevented any general and widespread use of the method.

Such criticisms suggest the advisability of a program of reform. The teaching of historical geography is at present a weak spot all along the line. It seems to me that this association might well, in the near future, direct some of its inquisitorial and reforming activity to a consideration of this particular matter.

## THE PRINCETON LABORATORY SYSTEM IN ELEMENTARY HISTORY.

BY HENRY R. SHIPMAN, PRINCETON UNIVERSITY.

In the time permitted to me I shall try to make clear that which is distinctive, although probably not unique, about Princeton's method of conducting an elementary history course. Our course, for sophomores, covers the period from the late Roman Empire to 1500—medieval history. The students are required to attend each week one lecture given to the entire class, one recitation in a group of about seventeen and one laboratory period of two hours. The lecture is based largely on Munro and Sellery's "Syllabus of Medieval History," the recitation principally on Robinson's "History of Western Europe," and Munro and Sellery's "Medieval Civilization;" an explanation of the laboratory work will be given in this paper, for it is the sole excuse for the infliction of this short statement upon you.

The laboratory with us consists simply of a lecture room fitted with benches and chairs and a book case with a few books in it, the work done in the laboratory largely the preparation of what are called topical reports. These reports are based on source material and that alone. Examples will make clear their character. A topic which has proved successful is "The Society of the Salian Franks," based on the translation of Salic Law in Henderson's Documents. That is all. The student must dig out of this short source all there is to be known about this society and construct a picture. Another was based on Einhard's "Charlemagne;" "What was Charlemagne's Attitude toward Education, toward the Church," etc. Several short reports or a long one could result. "Why Were the Christians Persecuted," based on the "Translations and Reprints," is another. "A Comparison of the Treatment of Moses, Abraham and Joshua" in the Old Testament and in the Koran is an example of a report from a different field. The students are instructed first to read through the references; second, write down on cards notes on the subject they are looking for; third, write out the report based on these notes, giving references with authority and page, for each statement of fact in the report. Six to eight short reports of this character are required each semester; fewer if the reports be long. Naturally there is an attempt to start the year with simple topics and proceed later to subjects of greater difficulty. All work is done under supervision in the laboratory; none outside of it.

What are the advantages of this method? In what respects is it better than the old-fashioned recitation or quiz?

First, it develops "historical-mindedness," the primary object of all history courses. The only way to secure this object is to study history through its problems. The student develops the questioning attitude so that he will not be as prone to accept whatever he reads or hears without first examining its probability and without desiring to hear the other side. We are trying to develop thoughtful citizens. We are not attempting to turn sophomores into expert his-

torians, but we do believe that to require the students to perform mere memory work is an insufficient excuse for asking him to study history. He must acquire an elementary knowledge of historical method.

The second advantage; and this is an offshoot from the first: the laboratory furnishes the best means for the study of problems. Probably we are all agreed that, if it be feasible, first-hand material and not second-hand should be read, but my own experience and that of my colleagues convince us that the source book cannot be used in connection with the recitation. I have tried it and failed, I confess it to my sorrow. The problem method forces the student to study the sources carefully and to show results from reading them. He understands why he is asked to read them.

The third advantage—and this may seem to savor of the boarding school, but we believe it is important—the student is compelled to spend two hours in the laboratory each week at work and under supervision. Difficulties are explained and much explanation is needed in the first weeks of the year. After all, you are sure that he is working. There is no presumption about it.

It is true that the student perhaps masters fewer details. He does not know as many facts as he would, were he quizzed for an hour, two or three times a week, but, if the problems are well chosen, he knows far more of the important things about these eleven hundred years. It may be said in passing that this method is best adapted to a period where the sources are not numerous and the problems are simple—the ancient or the medieval, very properly covered in elementary courses in college. It is in an elementary course that the students should acquire the proper viewpoint.

Is the method justified? We think that the results show that it is. Certainly the students approach the advanced courses with greater sense of direction.

### THE REQUIRED COURSE IN HISTORY:

By CLARENCE P. GOULD, COLLEGE OF WOOSTER.

During the past fall I had occasion to send to the history teachers of the Ohio colleges and a few other institutions a series of questions concerning their methods of teaching. In the brief time at my disposal this afternoon I wish to give you, in addition to my own thoughts on the subject of discussion, some of the results obtained from this questionnaire.

Concerning the text-book in the introductory course in history, I find the use of some sort of a text quite general. Every reply received mentioned the use of a text in the introductory course, though in many instances the text was abandoned in the more advanced work. One Ohio teacher had experimented with a no-text method in introductory work, but had given up the plan. I like a very brief text to serve as a binder to hold together the more extensive and also more fragmentary readings, and also to supply a minimum of narrative for which every student can be held.

In conducting the class-room work so much depends upon the personality of the teacher that all

standardization is out of the question. In my own work I have always held in mind certain fundamentals. First, the class-room should not duplicate the study done out of class. This is not always avoidable in the more advanced work, where the student's reading is pushing nearer to the limits of the teacher's knowledge; but in the introductory course where only the surface is being scratched, it is possible to dwell upon causes, to bring out general movements, to supplement here and there with material that the text-book lacks, to enliven by the introduction of present-day analogies, and in general to present the material in a different light. The simple narrative, which does not admit of any differences in point of view, is passed over very hurriedly, or in parts not touched at all. The class is held responsible, however, for all the narrative given in the text-book; and test and examination questions are frequently asked about points of narrative that have not been referred to in class. In short, repetition is tolerated only for emphasis.

The second point of class-room method is to induce the students to think, to question, and to discuss. Questions and voluntary expressions of opinion are constantly invited and always cordially received. When an opinion is volunteered I always try to find some truth in it, if possible; and even a small kernel of truth is given emphasis at least equal to that given to any correction that may be necessary, so that the student will end with the feeling that his boldness in volunteering a suggestion has really added something to the class-hour.

One difficulty arises in the effort to make the recitation a rather free discussion. If a student feels that he is to be graded on everything he says, he is very apt to conceal his ignorance by saying as little as possible. To have the desired spirit in both the class and myself, therefore, I find it necessary to abandon all grading of recitations. The only check that I can exercise on the daily preparation is an occasional written lesson, which I seldom have time to read. My questionnaire showed, on the other hand, that more than seventy per cent. of those answering do use the recitation as a means of grading.

Reference readings as revealed in the questionnaire, are all but universally employed. But there is a wide variation in the emphasis laid upon them. Some teachers require as high as four times as much reading as text, while others just reverse that proportion. The majority require about twice as much reading as text. Checking up these readings seems an almost hopeless task. Some attempt it by means of special tests, some quiz over them in the class-room, some require honor statements of the amount of reading done, many have formal reports of results given in the class-room, and still others require that notes taken from the readings be handed in. A new library system inaugurated this year is making it possible for me to tell from the library records just which books each student has used. By this means I hope to eliminate much of the copying of notes.

Another question of method about which my answers did not agree is that of written reports on special

topics, or historical essays. Some stated that such reports were required as often as possible, and others stated emphatically that they were never required. Some specially commended the reading of essays in class-room, while another said of the same that nothing is more deadly. In my own work I can make no use of the essay in introductory classes, and use it in electives only as honor work.

### METHODS OF INSTRUCTION IN ELEMENTARY COLLEGE HISTORY.

BY WILMER C. HARRIS, OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY.

This whole question of methods of instruction turns upon another and more fundamental problem, namely, what is the main object of the freshman course in history? What are we trying to accomplish?

One answer is that we have a great multiplicity of aims—that the object of the elementary college course is to give the student a little of everything connected with the study of history to teach him how to take notes in class; to become familiar with the works of the great historians; to write an essay or historical monograph, based on wide reading, showing some power of discrimination in the use of authorities, organization of material, style, form, with page references properly placed; to give him some idea of the way in which history is written by introducing him to the problems of historical research; to teach him to use books and libraries; and, in addition, to teach him a considerable mass of facts, causes, events, results, leaders, dates and interpretations, incident to a course in the history of Europe from the time of the Roman Empire until to-day. It seems to me that the attempt to teach all this in the limited time at our disposal is bound to result in failure.

A second possible answer to the question is that there is one great object in the elementary college course; other aims may play a part, incidentally, but one thing should be emphasized. Those holding this view regard the progress of a student in history as developmental and evolutionary from the primary grades upward. They would have the history work differentiated, certain things being emphasized in each stage of the student's progress. Without attempting to map out the whole curriculum, what is the main object of the elementary college course?

The answer to this will depend upon the stage of development reached by the average student when he leaves the high school and enters college. In general, I believe that this average student's historical equipment, however much it may vary with individuals, consists of a more or less vague familiarity with certain more or less striking facts. He knows, for example, that Alfred was interested in learning; that Charlemagne was crowned on Christmas day; that Luther nailed ninety-five theses on the church door; and that the Bastille fell during the French Revolution. Perhaps some such facts as these are about all we should expect him to know; for the high school deliberately and properly emphasizes those things that are striking and will appeal to the pupil's imagination. The next step—and this to my mind is

the thing to be emphasized in the elementary college course—is to teach him to connect his facts; to make him see that the life of man is developmental and evolutionary; to give him some conception of the stream of history. Concretely, I would teach him to tell the story of the past life of man in Europe from the time of the Roman Empire until to-day. In other words, this second answer—and it represents my own position—is, that the main object of an outline course is the outline; the main object of a general course is the general view.

What is the best method for accomplishing this result? Is it the lecture system? Undoubtedly this would result in the student's having in his note-book a more or less correct version of the carefully organized and logically developed story of the past as worked out by the lecturer. But I believe a better method is the discussion method. The discussion method is flexible; the teacher may lecture informally or he may quiz for facts; the main point is for student and teacher to go over the lesson together, and try to understand it. Then the teacher will constantly emphasize the importance of keeping in mind the general evolution. But he will not do more than suggest this; he will leave it for each student to work out the bird's-eye view for himself. From time to time he may give a written examination with such questions as, "Tell the story of England from prehistoric times to 1066," or "Tell the story of France from earliest times to 887," or 1328 or any other date reached by the class in their studies. From these papers the teacher may select a few of the best as models to be read before the class. Good papers may differ widely in details, but they will agree in telling a consecutive story.

This conception of history and this telling of the story will give the student the historical background necessary for the advanced courses in special periods. He will see these special periods in their historical perspective—they will not stand isolated or suspended in the air. Logically, I would eliminate from the elementary course the preparation of a "term paper" on a special topic, for this comes more properly in courses dealing with special topics or special periods. I would also eliminate from the introductory course all ideas of the "historical laboratory." Historical research is the province of the scholar, not the novice, and may well be reserved for the graduate seminar. We may enjoy and derive benefit from a meal without knowing the arts of the kitchen; so the freshman may derive intellectual nourishment from his history without knowing the technique of the historian.

### SOURCE STUDIES IN ELEMENTARY COLLEGE COURSE.

BY DONALD L. MCMURRY, VANDERBILT UNIVERSITY.

The topic which I wish to discuss is the question how far parallel source problems should be used in a course in medieval and modern history, three hours a week for one year, such as that given at Vanderbilt University. Mr. Frayer has stated that methods in a freshman course ought to be slighted so far as they

fail to arouse interest or give information to the student. This is especially true in a course in medieval and modern history such as seems to be generally favored by those who have discussed the field to be covered; the length of the period necessarily makes the content of the course rather thin. If source problems are used, only a few recitations in each term or semester can be devoted to them without making it appreciably thinner.

Under these conditions what problems can be used? No one of the books of parallel source problems which has been printed covers the field of the course; and the problems contained in any of them are of enough complexity and difficulty, so that I do not believe that in the time available I could do conscientious work with a freshman class. On the other hand, the greater part of the students in this course are never going to take any other history in college. It hardly seems proper that they should be turned out without any knowledge of the processes by which historical facts are established. Therefore, if it is in any way possible to give the student an introduction to some of those processes in a very simple way, in a few recitations, that is the ideal thing to do.

Now parallel source problems in an elementary course must be very simple; they should not include many sources, and they should not have too many questions to be answered, because the freshman's historical sense is comparatively undeveloped in most cases, and too much progress should not be expected in a few hours of recitation. What he needs after he is weaned from high school is semi-solid historical nourishment at first. If you try to start him on historical pork and beans, he is lost. He is not yet ready for simplified graduate work. Conversations with a number of students in more advanced undergraduate classes has led to the conclusion that, unless the teacher devotes a considerable amount of class-room time in explaining just how the students are to attack the problems, and perhaps illustrates by working out parts of them himself, even upper-classmen sometimes arrive at a state of mental indigestion. Most freshmen cannot handle any but simple problems without too great an expenditure of time.

It seems possible, however, that a great deal may be gained by the use of a few simple source problems, presented and partly worked out by the teacher with the active co-operation of the students. They may thus gain some elementary knowledge of the processes of historical criticism; the interdependence and independence of sources, and how facts are established and evaluated, which is intended not to give them the technique of historical research, but to develop an attitude of mind which will understand something of how facts in the text book have been discovered and determined, and why they are in the book. They can then more readily understand how two authorities can differ in their opinions of certain historical developments without necessarily damaging the reputation of either of them.

In order to proceed by this method, it is desirable to have for classroom use a book containing a number

of problems that extend over the field of medieval and modern history and which are simpler than those now obtainable. The teacher can take one of these problems, work it out, and show the class what is to be done, just as an example in algebra is worked out by the teacher before the students are given a set of problems to work. The student can learn by imitation things that it would take him a long time to discover by himself, and he can gain more by practicing what he has learned than by wondering how to attack unfamiliar material. Even if the teacher continues to do a large part of the work in order to save time, the student can gain from these exercises glimpses into the method of history such as he seldom gets from text books, fuller secondary works, or isolated documents. The occasional solution of such problems ought, without consuming a great amount of classroom time, to contribute something to the development of a historical attitude of mind.

### THE ELEMENTARY COLLEGE COURSE IN HISTORY.

BY CARLTON J. H. HAYES, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY.

For many years the lecture system was employed in our elementary course at Columbia. For a time we had two lectures a week and a third hour of quiz; for a considerable length of time we tried one lecture a week and two hours of quiz. In 1909, however, we threw over the lecture system bag and baggage, because it was the experience of all of us who had to conduct the course that the disadvantages of the lecture system far outweighed the advantages. In our experience at Columbia we discovered in an acute degree these disadvantages: First, there was great difficulty in co-ordinating the lecture work and the quiz work. Secondly, there were unfortunate tendencies of the lecturers. Thus the full-professor-lecturer tended to ride his advanced research hobbies before college freshmen with the result that the freshmen were confused or mystified or rendered very drowsy. Likewise the lecturer tended to get out of touch with the individual student and accordingly to lose interest in him and to lack comprehension of his problems and points of view. The lecturer also tended, as he lost interest in and comprehension of his auditors, to make his own lecture quite stereotyped, repeating the same facts and the same jokes year after year.

Another serious disadvantage which we found in the lecture system was the fact that it represented too radical a break with high-school methods. I think we are likely to lose sight of the fact that the first two years of the American college are approximately the same, not as the first two years of a German university, but rather as the last two years of the gymnasium or the French lycée, and that neither Frenchmen nor Germans would think of employing university methods in their secondary schools. The experience of the Europeans is certainly not without value to Americans.

The most disadvantageous aspects of the lecture system was, with us and, I believe, is everywhere, the disgraceful and scandalous position of the quiz mas-

ters—the “bosses of section gangs.” The persons who are put in charge of the difficult task of cross-questioning students week by week, are usually inexperienced in what demands a good deal of experience. They are always underpaid, and they are doing the disagreeable work only as a means of gaining experience, which, when gained, will mean ordinarily that they will win higher pay, not where they have done the work, but at another institution. The result of this situation is a constant flux of younger men back and forth through the elementary courses. It is the worst sort of educational policy. Young men fresh with their Ph.D.’s should be tried out and given their first experience in advanced special courses, not in the elementary course which is supposed to open the freshman’s eyes to the broad and beautiful vistas of historical delight. The “boss of the gang” usually has a contempt for himself and certainly his students have a contempt for him. Students may tolerate and at times even venerate the lecturer; they do not venerate or always even tolerate the quiz master. This is one of the saddest and most unfortunate aspects of the lecture system. About the only reason I know why the system endures is the fact that it is cheaper financially as well as otherwise. The lecture system can be conducted by one well-paid lecturer and several minimum-wage “cubs,” while the discussion system can properly be conducted only by a large number of fairly well-paid instructors and professors.

Inasmuch as the disadvantages seem to outweigh the advantages, we at Columbia in 1909 abandoned the lecture system, and at that time we substituted the recitation and informal lecture system. Our entire elementary class, comprising some 450 students, is now divided up into sections of 25 or 30 students each. Each such section is met three times a week by one and the same professor or instructor who assigns text-book and collateral reading references, hears recitations thereon, conducts written tests, lectures informally from time to time, oversees the preparation of term essays, assigns map studies, and regularly interviews every student on his work. To tie together the work of all the sections we have a presiding officer of instruction, frequent conferences of instructors, uniform final examination questions and a common syllabus which, however, is broad and general enough to allow a fair degree of latitude to the several instructors.

There is one matter of detail to which Mr. Walker has referred, the matter of historical geography, concerning which in conclusion I would say a word. We at Columbia, like so many of you, find that our students on entering college know very, very little geography; in fact the depths of their ignorance surpass understanding; yet how can a man learn any history who knows no geography? So we make our students in our elementary course draw historical maps—one map every week. These maps which we require are not merely copying from a single atlas—that would be manual training of the most inferior sort—but real map studies; *Problems in Historical Geography*, we call them, so stated that the student to solve them must read text and collateral reading and examine several

different atlases. I have not the time here to describe these map studies further, but anyone who is interested will find just how they have been worked out in the field of modern European history by two of our enthusiastic instructors at Columbia, Mr. Parker T. Moon and Mr. Austin P. Evans, by inspecting the pamphlet on exhibition here entitled “A Syllabus of Modern History with Map Studies,” Columbia University, 1916. A similar set of map studies for American history prepared by my colleagues Professor Robert L. Schuyler and Mr. Dixon Ryan Fox will be found in another pamphlet, “A Syllabus of American History,” Columbia University, 1915.

### THE METHOD OF THE ELEMENTARY COURSE

BY JAMES G. McDONALD, INDIANA UNIVERSITY.

It is very late. I am as conscious of it as you can possibly be. I promise to finish within my five minutes, even at the risk of saying nothing. Keenly interested in Professor Hayes’ attack on the lecture system and what he has chosen to call the “section boss,” I am tempted to tell you a story. It was told to me with evident delight by one of my students when I was an assistant in History I at Harvard: “One morning after one of the elementary classes had been dismissed, an undergraduate, rushing up to an emaciated individual who happened to have lingered in the class room after most of the students had gone, said, ‘Are you the assistant in this course?’ The response was, ‘No, that is not what is the matter with me. I have just had typhoid.’” Apparently Professor Hayes would have us believe that such a story as this aptly illustrates the students’ conception of the assistant. I doubt it.

It must be admitted, however, that many of the charges made against the lecture system as ordinarily used can be maintained. But I am sure that these evils are not inherent in the system, because as used in Harvard’s History I, the lecture method was, when I knew it, not merely free from most of the defects referred to a little while ago, but had a positive and definite value peculiarly its own. I understand that the course has not been changed and is still based upon an arrangement for co-operative lecturers. Five or six of the men, beginning with Professor Haskins and ending with Professor Coolidge, lecture to the students of History I during the year. This method, you may say, subjects the students to the possibility, not only of the evils of the ordinary lecture system, but also to an additional evil—lack of effective co-ordination.

Fortunately these evils, particularly the last, have been largely avoided through the whole-hearted co-operation of all concerned. But what surprised and delighted me with this plan of lecturing—and this is the unique value of this method which I wish to make clear to you—was the discovery that the boys of my sections, instead of going to sleep or of amusing themselves in other ways during the lectures, were gaining most stimulating inspiration from the lecturers themselves. Some of the boys were interested keenly in

Professor Haskins' interpretation of the Normans' role in European history, some were aroused by Professor Emerton's analysis of the reformation, some responded surprisingly to Professor Merriman's presentation of the history of the 17th and 18th centuries, while others found in Professor Gay's explanation of the industrial revolution the impetus to further inquiry. Similarly, Professor Johnston, Dr. Lord, and Professor Coolidge each aroused in different students a new interest in those phases of the 19th century which each discussed. Sometimes it was the unusual point of view of the lecturer that appealed to the student. More often, perhaps, it was the lecturer's personality. But whether point of view or personality, I am confident that this source of inspiration is of great value, and that it should be present as fully as may be in every History I. Harvard obtains this through her lecture system.

But have we not this afternoon limited ourselves too narrowly to the question of method of presentation? Is not the paramount question rather, what the student shall read? I am persuaded that one of the big things which the freshman ought to get out of his history course is the desire to read, and the knowledge that he can read, not merely text-books, but the really great histories. Any course is badly conducted in which the instructor limits himself to the assignment of a certain number of pages in the text from day to day. Our most important consideration is, I believe, that our students, in one way or another, should be enabled to find out that, for instance, Bryce's "The Holy Roman Empire," Mr. Thayer's "Cavour," or Morley's "Gladstone," are interesting books; or that Benvenuto Cellini's Autobiography and Joinville's "Chronicle" are as thrilling as the latest best sellers. Some of my students at Harvard found this out and were delightfully surprised to discover that such "big" books could be other than dull and dry.

So whether we have lecture or quiz, let us give our students an opportunity to get in touch with the books that really have value in themselves, a value which arouses interest, trains the judgment and develops a sense of critical appreciation. Text-books in history ordinarily do none of these things. To my mind it is little short of a crime to permit our students to go through the year of their college freshman history and know nothing more than their text-book, and the little that they may incidentally learn in addition. For after all what the student gets out of the course is not so much what the teacher gives in class, whether by discussion or lecture, as it is that which the boy or girl gets for himself or herself.

But how are we to encourage our students to get the habit of reading these "worth-while" books? There is, I presume, no general rule. Much will depend upon local conditions. But certainly, as one of the previous speakers has said, our students should have these books readily accessible. Nothing is more desirable for History I, Government I, Economics I, etc., than a special library or reading room—it need not be pretentious—into which the students may go, look at the books, handle them and become familiar

with their bindings at the very least. They will not, as a rule, content themselves with this "outside" information. Certainly if we have such a reading room, and if, in addition, we arrange our course so as to require some elementary acquaintance with the classic histories, we shall have gone far toward enabling our freshmen to discover that the standard books are worth reading, that they were written for them and that with a little practice they can enjoy them thoroughly. If we do this it will not matter much whether we give them a course in ancient, medieval, or modern history, or whether by lecture or discussion, because if they once discover that the great books are worth while they will go ahead and get the things which they need.

### THE METHOD OF THE ELEMENTARY COURSE.

By ALBERT H. LYBYER, UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS.

We have heard a great many very interesting statements. We have heard the most important points stated emphatically on the one side, and also on the other side. Each one seems to have spoken from his own experience as he has worked it out.

I have been connected with History I courses for something like ten years now. I suppose each one of us is on the whole best satisfied with something like the present situation which he has carried through. Of course we all feel that there are points which we wish especially to impress, and we are all trying to improve our courses in such directions.

I suppose that the freshmen courses of the University of Illinois come as near to being eclectic, or balanced, or composite, as any that could be devised; yet I do not feel, and I am sure my colleagues will bear me out in this, that we have reached the results that sometimes come from a balanced but really negative, ineffective, comparatively useless sort of scheme; I think that our combination has worked out on the whole pretty well. We do not believe that the lecture should be done away with. We think that there are two methods of imparting information just as there are two principal senses that are employed in acquiring information in education, the eye and the ear. You are engaged at this present moment in acquiring information by the ear. Of course there is some teaching by the ear in the method of the recitation and quiz, but in that method acquisition is primarily before the class hour and by the eye. A lecturer addresses himself directly and uninterruptedly to the ear. To exclude the lecture method entirely is to abandon a tested and developed device of great value, and is something that all of us at Illinois would oppose. We have open to freshmen a four-hour course and a three-hour course. Our four-hour course is the usual combination of medieval and modern history; our three-hour course is a course in English history; we have a balanced arrangement in each of these courses, approximately half of the time being given to the lecture and half the time to the quiz.

As to the use of textbooks, we like to have one text-



book and then refer to a great many other books. We also give the student choices from a wider range, for additional reading on topics that interest him.

In one respect we have not yet, on account of lack of space, been able to carry out what would be desirable, that is, something in the nature of a historical laboratory. It does seem desirable that the students should work to a certain extent under supervision.

Our constant endeavor is to combine in our schemes the better features of all good methods.

We offer this out of our experience.<sup>1</sup>

### METHOD OF THE ELEMENTARY COURSE IN THE SMALL COLLEGE.

By L. H. GIPSON, WABASH COLLEGE.

As a representative of the small college, I should like to say a few words with special reference to the possibilities of work in historical method in connection with the History I course.

It has been clearly enough shown here to-day that, if you are going to present to the average student who comes into the history department any conception of how history is written; if you are going to disabuse his mind of the idea that text-books and lectures are all but divinely inspired, you have to do it in the beginning course in history. For experience shows that the average student will not take his second, not to mention his third or fourth year, in this subject. Personally I do not know of anything more fundamentally valuable which a student can secure from a history department than acquiring the ability, even to a small degree, of handling the facts of the past in a critical manner. To reserve this training exclusively for the graduate school seems to be the most paradoxical thing imaginable, considering the generally accepted purposes of history teaching. It surely is not enough that the instructor shall display his own efficiency in this regard. Is it not as impossible to turn out an efficient history student by this process as it is a skater? Will the student catch "historical-mindedness" from his instructor like the mumps? I think we are all agreed that he will acquire this by doing those things which will give his faculties the necessary training. However I do not wish to be mistaken. I would not turn History I into a course in historical method as some extreme advocates would favor doing. I would agree with those who would make the leading feature a study of movements in general European history.

To carry out this idea of getting the beginning student acquainted with the point-of-view as well as with some of the mechanism of historical composition, I have prepared and published for my students a little manual which I have entitled, "The Historical Monograph." In this manual, within the limits of a comparatively few pages, I have tried to state in a careful and concise way, in non-technical language,

just what principles underlie good historical composition, and how a student should go to work if he ever hopes to construct anything which is to possess merit in this field. I have found that good results, occasionally surprisingly good results, have come from the practice of placing this manual in the hands of every student upon his entering the department. These results have been obtained primarily in the preparation of the much-abused semester paper. One of the speakers has referred to the desirability of introducing the student to the books that are worth while pertaining to his field. My design is to get the student to become intimately acquainted with a number of these books in connection with this semester study. In fact, most of the reading that a student will do in the course, outside of the regularly assigned text-book work and occasional library reports, will be in connection with the investigation of his semester topic. The topic of course, is selected with care so as to permit and encourage rather extensive reading.

In mentioning text-books, I should like to say, in addition, that I am a firm believer in the value of texts, provided, of course, that they have been prepared by competent workmen. Students in History I at Wabash are expected to buy a number during the year which they use in connection with the working up of a syllabus. It is my custom to alternate quizzes with informal lectures.

The advantages of the above program for a History I course, it seems to me, are, that it gives the student an opportunity, that otherwise he probably would never have again, of cultivating to some extent a constructively critical attitude toward history. In doing this, he will get acquainted with a number of the more important works in the field which he is covering; he will get a rounded view of events by following consistently his text-book assignments, and in the purchasing of these required books will be laying the foundations of a private library, something that has the most subtle influence in the making of a scholar; his syllabus will tend to thoroughness of work; he will be stimulated and kept in trim by the quizzes and discussions; lastly, through the lectures he will be led to perceive the wider significance of the facts with which he is dealing.

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The January number of "The London Quarterly Review" has an interesting article by Principal H. B. Workman on "Medieval Schools," dwelling particularly on those in England. Other articles of interest in this issue are: "By-Paths of Papal History," by W. Ernest Beet, and "One of Cromwell's Chaplains, Peter Sterry," by Fred J. Powicke.

The January number of "The Edinburgh Review" publishes John Mavrogordato's article on "The End of Greek Monarchy," which, according to the author, is now at hand if the Greeks will only have courage of their convictions and declare for Venizelos.

Sir Edwin Pears gives a most charming account of his "Impressions of a Recent Tour in the United States" in "The Contemporary Review" for February, and Commendatore Prof. G. Boni writes in the same magazine on "Excavations on the Palatine."

<sup>1</sup> Professor Lybyer states that he will be glad to send a copy of the "Assignments in History I, University of Illinois," to any teacher of medieval and modern European history who will write to him.

## What Should We Attempt in Collateral Reading and How Shall We Test It?<sup>1</sup>

BY WILLIAM W. WUESTHOFF, HEAD OF THE HISTORY DEPARTMENT, ROCKFORD HIGH SCHOOL, ROCKFORD, ILL.

One of the objects of teaching history is to help the pupils acquire some knowledge of history. But it is just as important that the pupils should acquire a fondness and taste for historical reading. The pupil may acquire facts from class attendance, but he can gain vastly more in later years through further historical reading. This is only possible in the future if he has a knowledge of books that are worth reading and reliable. He can only do this if he has acquired the power and ability to study the subject systematically himself. A fondness for historical reading is most easily aroused through the use of collateral reading. In the United States the textbook method seems to have been popular in the past, but within late years a reform has come about. We all must admit now that some collateral reading is necessary. Textbooks as a rule are not entirely self-explanatory to all pupils. Most of the books require frequent elaboration. So our problem is a textbook with elaboration by the teacher and elaboration by means of collateral reading. The Madison Conference strongly emphasized the need of reference books. "Recitations alone," it was declared, "cannot possibly make up proper teaching of history. It is absolutely necessary from the earliest to the last grades, that there should be parallel reading of some kind. The main necessity is that the teachers should have it firmly fixed in their minds that it is impossible to teach history without reference books, as it is to teach chemistry without glass and rubber tubing." This was in 1892. The Committee of Seven of 1899 found little difference of opinion "on the question of supplementing the textbooks with additional reading of some sort." There were some conditions existing then which unfortunately still exist to-day, namely, the lack of specified required collateral reading, and that pupils are left to browse too much without any system. Too much of the work assigned to-day is still wholly optional with the pupil.

In order to make this discussion more definite a plan which is being used in Rockford will be explained in detail. It is not assumed that the plan is the best or perfect, still it is a successful attempt to systematize the collateral reading.

To make it really possible to do good work with collateral reading one must have the co-operation of a library, either city or high school. As a rule librarians look upon themselves as educators and are ready to co-operate with the teachers. In Rockford City Library all effort is made to help the pupils. History books needed by pupils are kept on open

shelves in the reference room. This means that the books are not to be taken out of the library, and at the same time it gives the pupils a chance to get into the library environment. But one's interest is particularly attracted to the Rockford High School Library because it comes closer to the pupils. This library is entering upon its second year and already has some 8000 books. Let us remember that the library is the history department's laboratory. We should expect a regular and equal appropriation for this library as for the laboratory of the science department. A trained librarian has charge of the high school library, and during the year gives talks to the pupils and instructs them on how to use the library. The library is conducted on the open-shelf plan and this gives the pupils all the possible chance to browse. Pupils are admitted to the library by an admit issued to them and signed by the teacher who is requesting them to do reading in the library. The admit plan keeps out of the library those who have nothing to do there in particular and makes it possible for others who have work there to get their books. Student control has charge of the library at all times, maintaining order, collecting admits and returning them to the teachers who issued them. The best indication that the library is being used is that practically every chair is taken every hour. Admits are collected at the door so as to admit only the number that the library can take care of. Many pupils are sent back to their study halls because the library is crowded. As many as thirty-five to forty admits are returned to me per day, which means that at least one-third of my pupils are in the library daily.

What can we expect these pupils to do in this laboratory? In the assignment of collateral reading the first rule is to avoid waste of time in making the assignment. The list of readings for the week or for several weeks, should be mimeographed and distributed in class. It is also a good plan to have copies of the lists posted in the libraries. My experience has been that readings should be assigned by topics and not by one long group of references covering several topics. The following is a copy of the first two topics to be read by the Greek history pupils. The mimeographed sheets contain about four topics and are distributed to the pupils from time to time. Such reading lists are provided for all courses, namely, Greek and Roman history, modern history, and United States history.

### Collateral Reading for Greek History:

All pupils must read at least ten pages from each group. Notes must be taken on all readings in note book with the name of the author, name of the book, and page references cited.

<sup>1</sup> A paper presented to the History Section of Northern Illinois Association, at Dixon, Ill., October 27, 1916.

Chapters refer to chapters in Morey's *Ancient Peoples*.

#### CHAPTER I—EARLY MAN.

- Clodd, "Primitive Man," 85-179.  
 Starr, "First Steps in Human Progress," 11-241.  
 Holbrook, "Cave, Mound and Lake Dwellers," 9-180.  
 Seignobos, "History of Ancient Civilization," 1-10.  
 West, "Ancient World" (revised), 1-10.  
 Myers, "Ancient History," 1-12.  
 Robinson & Breasted, "Outlines of European History, Part I," 1-16.  
 Hoernes, "Primitive Man," 1-102.  
 Keary, "Dawn of History," 1-212.  
 Elliott, "Romance of Savage Life," 55-375.  
 Duckworth, "Prehistoric Man," 1-149.  
 Hittell, "Mankind in Ancient Times, Vol. I," 51-206, 245-318.  
 Lubbock, "Pre-historic Times," 25-423.  
 Mitchell, "Past and Present," 66-178.

#### CHAPTER II—BABYLONIANS.

- Robinson & Breasted, "Outlines of European History, Part I," 61-71.  
 Myers, "Ancient History," 46-61.  
 Botsford, "Source Book of Ancient History," 27-41.  
 Goodspeed, "History of the Babylonians and Assyrians," 49-56, 71-117.  
 Webster, "Readings in Ancient History," 6-9.  
 Sayce, "Ancient Empires of the East," 90-114.  
 Seignobos, "History of Ancient Civilization," 41-47.  
 Davis, "Readings in Ancient History" (Greece), 24-29, 35-44.  
 Ragozin, "Story of Chaldea," 92-115, 229-257.  
 Rawlinson, "Five Great Monarchies, Vol. II, 435-580, Vol. III, 1-33.

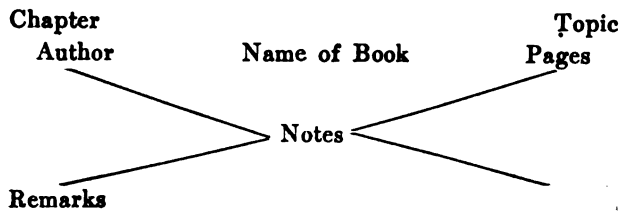
The plan now being used in the history department of Rockford High School requires that pupils read one topic per chapter of the text book. For each of these topics a number of references are cited, as many as possible. The department has 182 Greek history pupils and 161 Roman history pupils and this total of 343 pupils creates a big demand for books. The only chance for trouble in the system arises when pupils can not get hold of books. Hence the more references cited the better. Topics chosen must be broad enough so as to be able to find a good many references. The kind of topics to be chosen must be interesting and must give the pupil information other than he finds in the text-book. The choice of books for the reference list is very important. Still it depends a great deal upon the library, for if the library is large one naturally has a wide choice, but with a small library one must make the best and greatest possible use of each book. The range of the possible selection of books is wider than some teachers seem to suspect. Such books as biographies, memoirs, general histories, histories of limited periods or particular localities, source books, history text-books, historical

dictionaries, and encyclopaedias all contribute richly in making history real, intelligent and interesting. Not always can the whole book be used. It is the teacher's business to select portions only at times to make it intelligible to the pupils. The reference list for our department was made by assigning various topics to the departmental teachers and asking them to go into the library and find all possible references for the topics assigned. In a meeting the topics were discussed with the references collected and this led in turn to the making of the final copy. To be sure not all books cited are the best, but use was made of what was on hand. When new books come in the poor books will be taken off the list. It seems best that the exact pages with references be cited, rather than chapters or the whole book. Mostly references which had ten or more pages were selected because as a rule pupils do not like to read more than two books to make up the required amount of reading. The kinds of books included in the list are both secondary and original sources. Many pupils are especially attracted to the source books.

Now the question may arise, how much can be expected of the pupils? Each pupil must read ten pages from each of the topics listed (ten pages for Greek and Roman history, fifteen pages for modern history, twenty pages for United States history). Emphasis is placed on the least and more is expected. This totals about 400-450 pages for Greek and Roman history, 550 pages for modern history and 600 pages for United States history. (It must be remembered that besides this collateral reading pupils are held responsible for reports given in class. The teacher has her own method and choice with this assignment, and usually the pupils are given the report and are asked to find their own references—this makes for the browsing.) Pupils may choose any reference from the group, or two references if necessary to make up the total pages. In every case the pupil must note the author, name of book, and pages read when making the report. Notes are taken on all readings on loose-leaf note book paper, and this gives desirable training and helps the pupil to remember what he read. Teachers should give suggestions on how to take notes, with emphasis that pupils should not copy a page from the book they are reading and call it notes. They should be urged to read, and then pause to write their impressions. A good plan is to give pupils a practice lesson in taking notes. Let the teacher read a page, and then after the pupils have taken notes compare the same. Pupils should also be made familiar with simple contractions and abbreviations. When copying exact passages from books, quotation marks must be insisted upon. There are other things they must learn here too. At the end of their notes pupils should be requested to insert remarks which should be an original opinion on the value of the books or the contents. This is also the place to express their likes and dislikes.

This method of checking and testing the pupils on their reading seems to be the most essential and still is not over difficult. All our pupils hand in their notes

on their readings written up in the same form, as follows:



This makes it easier for the teacher to check up. The teacher can tell at a glance what kind of work the pupil is doing by the kind of references he chooses. (Of course it is assumed that the teacher is prepared and knows books.) If the teacher is dissatisfied she can call the pupil's attention to making a different choice of author or encourage the pupil to read the same author, same book or different books. Some pupils usually read different topics in the same books, other pupils read different books each time. The notes taken by the pupil help the teacher to check whether the pupil is reading correctly and what the pupil is reading. After covering the notes the teacher will find some interesting things in the remarks. Here the pupil is himself. He tells you just what he thinks. The judgment is formed only after reading. He knows that he must cite remarks and while reading keeps this in mind. Often the entry will be short as "interesting," "good reading," "enjoyable," "dry," "I don't like this book." The important point is to get an honest entry. Such record is of value to both the teacher and the pupil. It furnishes a fairly clear indication of what is suitable reading. If the teacher finds Clodd, "Primitive Man," a popular book there is a reason. If another book is condemned because "it is too hard" it would be worth investigating. Thus in time the teacher will learn the kinds of books well suited to the pupils. It is not uncommon for the pupils to bring the material which they read into the daily discussion. They even cite the author and the name of the book to back up their statements and feel a great amount of pride in doing so. This shows that they feel that they have discovered something. Boys and girls like to discover. To test the pupils give one-half of one period per week to questioning pupils on their readings. A good way to test pupils on to-day's or yesterday's reading is to pick up your returned admits and ask a pupil some questions like the following: 1—What topic were you reading to-day? 2—Give the author and the name of the book? 3—What period did your reading cover? 4—Did it give you any new information? 5—Was the reading interesting or dull? Why? With such questions and others you can get the pupil to talk and he will have much to relate since the reading is still fresh with him. As a final check a question might be included in the monthly quiz or the final examination. Everybody has read about the same, so that it would not be hard to frame a broad general question.

The plan as outlined is workable. It is hoped that the discussion may lead to a greater interest in collateral reading.

## PERIODICAL LITERATURE

EDITED BY GERTRUDE BRAMLETTE RICHARDS, PH.D.

Sir Rabindranath Tagore's article on "Nationalism in the West" (March "Atlantic") is more or less a restatement of his views expressed in his lecture on "The Cult of Nationalism" delivered last winter in some of our leading cities. Students of history and theory of government cannot fail to find this arraignment of western political ideals full of food for thought—and even of action.

In the same magazine is an interesting anonymous study of Lloyd George and the Coup d'Etat, and its significance. The author claims that Lloyd George's system is the most daring experiment in government in Great Britain since Cromwell set up his system of Major-Generals.

The "Civilita Cattolica" for January, 1917, has an interesting unsigned article on Innocent III and the seventh centenary of his death, an analysis of his temporal power.

"To America on Foot" ("Harper's" for March) is the story of M. E. Ravage's start from Rumania to America, and incidentally it gives an insight into many conditions of the life of immigrants at home and on the way.

T. Lothrop Stoddard's "The Blundering in Greece" (March "Century") is a study of the position of Greece since 1914, and of the prudent, even fearful quelling of her desires for patriotic action.

"Government Prevention of Railroad Strikes," by Samuel O. Dunn (March "Scribner's"), is an able article by the editor of "The Railway Age Gazette." It points out the fact that organized capital is nowhere else confronted with organizations of labor at once so powerful, so militant and possessed of so many strategic advantages as in the railway field, and reviews the steps by which this situation has come about.

Edward G. Lowry's "The War in the Middle West" (March "World's Work") justifies the criticism of the Eastern papers of the lethargic condition of the Middle West. The author explains this by the fact that this section is prosperous enough to want the present status to remain unchanged.

"Neutral Rights at Sea" ("Review of Reviews" for March) is a summary of the diplomatic correspondence between the United States and the belligerent groups.

The same magazine has an interesting article on "Our New Caribbean Islands," by Eldred E. Jacobsen.

The January number of the "National Geographic Magazine" has a well-illustrated article on "The Valley of Ten Thousand Smokes," by Robert F. Griggs, of the Ohio State University, leader of the expedition to the Katmai district of Alaska in 1915-16.

Major General W. H. Carter writes on "Our Defective Military System," and Lieut. Com. L. A. Cotten on "Our Naval Problem" in the March "North American." Both articles are quite pessimistic, although each strives for an impartial view-point.

J. Holland Rose's "France and the Rhine Frontier" (February "Nineteenth Century") is an argument against the Rhine as the natural boundary of France. The article was in type before the Allied Governments stipulated their terms of peace. Mr. Rose criticizes the scheme as incompatible with the national solidarity, the military security and the peaceful development of France.

# The Status of History in the High Schools of Wisconsin

BY PROFESSOR WAYLAND J. CHASE, UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

A careful survey of the social science subjects in the high schools of the state of Wisconsin was made for the year 1914-15, and some of the resulting statistics may be of general interest. There were 344 public high schools, varying in size from 13 pupils to 1,125, and having a total enrollment of over 42,000 young citizens. Of this number, approximately 10,500 were taking ancient history; about 5,100 medieval and modern history; about 2,500 English history; about 6,500 American history; 4,700 civics and 1,500 economics. It was not possible from the records studied to determine accurately how many were taking two courses of history. So disregarding this element of duplication of membership in courses, which would not bulk large, 24,600 pupils took some history; that is to say, practically 59 per cent. In one high school, and only one, every pupil was taking history. This was the smallest high school of the state with a total enrollment of 13 pupils.

The extent of the opportunity presented by the high schools for studying history in addition to whatever civics and economics they were offering, was as follows: 3 offered 4 years of history; 9 offered 3½ years

of history; 132 offered 3 years; 19 offered 2½ years; 148 offered 2½ years or approximately that; 26 offered 2 years; 4 offered 1½ years; 2 offered but 1 year, and 1 offered only ½ year. There was none that offered no history in its course of study. Thus more than one-half of the schools were giving no more than 2½ years to the study of history.

Ten years earlier than this a committee of the history section of the State Teachers' Association, appointed to ascertain the relation existing between American history and civics in the high schools, examined the courses of study of 150 high schools, and reported that of these none offered 4 years of history; 56 offered 3 years; 57 offered 2½ years; 28 offered 2 years, and 9 offered 1½ years. The principle governing the selection of these 150 schools from the whole number is not explicitly declared in the committee's report, but it is implied that these 150 are those high schools in whose courses of study history has the largest place. Even on this supposition a comparison of the condition in 1914-15 with that of 1904-5 shows that history has a much stronger place now than then, for whereas then 56 out of 150 offered 3 years, now

4 Years	English Ancient Medieval and Modern American	Ancient Medieval and Modern English American				
3½ Years	Ancient Medieval and Modern English American, ½ year					
3 Years	Ancient Medieval and Modern American	Ancient Medieval and English American	Ancient English, ½ year Modern, ½ year American	Ancient Medieval and Modern, ½ year English, ½ year American	Ancient Medieval and Modern English, ½ year American, ½ year	Ancient, ½ year Medieval, ½ year Modern American
2¾ Years	Ancient Medieval and Modern American, ¾ year	Ancient, ¾ year Medieval, ¾ year English, ¾ year American	Ancient English, ¾ year American	Ancient Medieval and Modern, ¾ year English, ¾ year American, ¾ year		
2½ Years	Ancient Medieval and Modern American, ½ year	Ancient English American, ½ year	Ancient Medieval and English American, ½ year	Ancient English, ½ year American	Ancient Medieval and Modern, ½ year English, ½ year American, ½ year	Ancient, ½ year Medieval, ½ year Modern, ½ year English, ½ year American, ½ year
2 Years	Ancient English, ½ year American, ½ year	Ancient American	Ancient, ½ year Medieval, ½ year English, ½ year American, ½ year	Ancient, ½ year Medieval and Modern, ½ year American	Medieval and Modern American	Ancient, ½ year Medieval and Modern and English American, ½ year
1½ Years	Ancient, ½ year Medieval and Modern, ½ year American, ½ year					
1 Year	Ancient					
½ Year	Ancient					

Here are 37 varieties of history program, a different one for about every ten schools, and it is apparent that nothing like uniformity or common ideal prevails as to length of course or content of course in history. As to the degree in which other history subjects besides American history are required subjects in the curriculum, it seems impossible to present accurate statistics, because where the high school offers more than one course of study, the requirements vary with the course. The requirement of the state department of education is that in those high schools that are under its authority, every pupil who graduates must have taken at least two units in each of these four subjects, English, mathematics, science and history-civics. But the large city school-systems of the state are independent of the control of the State Superintendent of Education and this requirement does not apply to them. It would appear that in the great majority of the schools ancient history, which is most often a second year subject, is required of all, as American history has been shown to be; medieval and modern, and English history are more often elective.

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## Reports from The Historical Field

A reading course in American history has recently been added to the list of such courses prepared by the United States Bureau of Education. The reading course was planned in response to over one thousand requests from various parts of the country for a reading list on American history. In writing about this course, Commissioner P. P. Claxton says, "No country has a more interesting history than the United States, which, from its beginnings in the scattered settlements of immigrants from European shores three hundred years ago and less, has grown through colonial and national life till it has become the greatest, wealthiest, most powerful and most prosperous, the freest, the most self-controlled and self-restrained, the most cosmopolitan and the most firmly united nation the world has ever known." Twenty-three works are mentioned in the reading list, and the United States Bureau of Education awards a certificate to any persons giving satisfactory evidence of having read eighteen books from the list.

The New York State History Teachers' Association has appointed a committee to draw up a constitution and outline a plan of activity for the Association. It is planned to establish a number of local branches in important centers of the State, and to hold two or three local meetings in the intervals between the annual State meetings. The officers of the Association are: President, Edward B. Smith, North Tonawanda; vice-president, Rachel M. Jarrold, Normal School, Fredonia; and secretary, R. Sherman Stowell, West High School, Rochester.

The student of Mexican history will find much to interest him in the recently-published report of the Committee for the Study of Educational Conditions in Mexico. The report is edited by the committee's chairman, President Charles William Dabney, of the University of Cincinnati. It traces the history of education in Mexico from the early colonial period down to the present time, and shows how the progress of popular education has been retarded by racial differences, by religious influences, by political revolutions, and by economic favoritism. The committee recommends the establishment in Mexico of an independent university somewhat similar to Robert College at Constantinople.

"Political Education in the Schools" is the subject of a series of papers printed in "Teaching," No. 33, published by the State Normal School at Emporia, Kan. Governor Arthur Capper contributes a paper upon "Simplifying Government in Kansas." Homer Hoch, editor of the "Record," of Marion, Kan., writes upon "Governmental Reform and the Public School." W. E. Myer, of the State Normal School, discusses "The Dependence of Democracy on the Public Schools;" "Methods of Political Training," and "Training of Teachers in Civil Government." Professor Myer accompanies his articles with bibliographical suggestions. Superintendent Alvin G. Gore, of Formosa, Kan., shows how current events are handled in the high school of his district, and Miss Anna Brogan, of the State Normal School, gives practical suggestions for the teaching of civics.

The Canada-India League (293 Huron Street, Toronto, Canada) has issued several pamphlets advocating the policy of admission of Hindu immigrants into Canada. A journal of information and conciliation entitled, "Canada and India," is also issued monthly from the same address.

No. 32 of "Teaching" is devoted to a consideration of the school library, elementary and rural. The number contains a list of books recommended for purchase at the starting of a school library. It gives advice as to how to classify, arrange and record the books of the library. Many practical suggestions are given concerning the gathering and care of pictures.

"Smith College Studies in History," Vol. 2, No. 2 (January, 1917), contains the correspondence of George Bancroft and Jared Sparks from 1823 to 1832, illustrating the relation between editor and reviewer in the early nineteenth century. The letters are edited by Prof. John Spencer Bassett.

The quarterly journal of the Historical Association (English), entitled, "History," for January, 1917, has been received. The number contains two papers upon "The Making of an Imperial Parliament," by Prof. R. Muir and Mr. D. O. Malcolm. Miss A. Abram contributes a paper describing military service in the Flemish commune of Bruges from 1288 to 1480. Miss Ruth Dodds gives a few facts in the life of a "Mosstrooper" who lived a cunning, fierce, true marchman about the year 1500.

The United States Bureau of Education has issued an educational survey of the State of Wyoming (Bulletin No. 29, 1916), prepared by Mr. A. C. Monohan and Miss Katherine M. Cook. The paper contains a sketch of the history of education in Wyoming and a detailed investigation of the present system, including buildings, equipment, enrollment and attendance, character of the teaching body, methods of instruction and of supervision, together with a body of recommendations for improvement of the State system.

The publishers of "The Outlook" have arranged to print weekly an outline study of current history which will be based upon the preceding issue of the magazine." The purpose of the study will be to aid teachers of current history to provide lists of topics for discussion in clubs; to afford a guide for discussion in the family circle; and to aid individual readers in a careful examination of current history. Mr. J. Madison Gathany, principal of the Hope Street High School, Providence, R. I., will prepare the weekly outlines.

The Division of Archives and History of the University of the State of New York, has begun, under the direction of the State historian, Dr. James Sullivan, the publication of a series of history leaflets. The leaflets are intended for the use of boys and girls in New York schools so that they may come to know something of the sources of the history which they study. Teachers and pupils are invited to co-operate with the Division of Archives and History in preparing material for these pamphlets. One recently issued pamphlet deals with "Verrazano's Voyage Along the Atlantic Coast of North America in 1524." The leaflet contains reproductions of portraits of Verrazano and of contemporary maps. A second pamphlet deals with Bedford Corners, Brooklyn, about which took place some of the important incidents of the Battle of Long Island. The pamphlet contains an imaginative view of Bedford Corners in 1776 and reproductions of engraved portraits of Sir William Howe, Earl Cornwallis, and Sir Henry Clinton. A map showing this section of Brooklyn as it was in 1776 is given, and also one on which the old roads are superimposed upon the present streets of Brooklyn.

### MIDDLE STATES ASSOCIATION.

The Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland will hold its annual meeting in Philadelphia on Friday and Saturday, May 4 and 5. The program will

consist of papers and discussions upon the following topics: (1) "Should the History Curriculum for Vocational Students Differ from That for Academic Students? If so, How?" (2) "How Far Should the Teaching of History Be Used as a Means of Encouraging Patriotism?" The Saturday morning session will be held at Girard College, and members will be entertained at luncheon by the college authorities.

#### INDIANA HISTORY TEACHERS.

The spring meeting of the Indiana History Section of the Indiana State Teachers' Association was held in Indianapolis, March 2 and 3. The program for Friday afternoon was as follows: "Some Phases of the Indiana Fugitive Slave Law of 1850," by Charles H. Money, Manual Training High School; "Populism in Indiana," by Hallie Farmer, Muncie High School; "A Chapter in Indiana Pension History," by John W. Oliver, Department of Indiana History and Archives; "Extra Legal Activities of Governor Morton," by Olin D. Morrison, Indiana University. The following addresses were given on Friday evening: "The Labor Problem in Indiana Politics," by Ray S. Trent, Extension Division of Indiana University; "An American Attitude in International Affairs," by Thomas F. Moran, Purdue University.

On Saturday morning the business session was held. Two papers, one by J. R. H. Moore, on "Some Conclusions Drawn from My Experience in Teaching Indiana History," and the other, by Charles H. Money, on "Suggestions for the Fall Meeting," were read. The following reports were also read: Report of the Committee on the Correlation of History and Civics, by W. O. Lynch, chairman, State Normal School, and Report of the Committee for the Revision of the Course of Study in History in the Secondary Schools, by Harlow Lindley, chairman, Earlham College. The papers and reports gave rise to interesting and spirited discussions. A report of much importance was made by the Committee for the Revision of the Course of Study in History in the Secondary Schools. The report, which was adopted, is as follows:

1. The committee recommends that the State Board of Education be asked to adopt a two years' course of European history, including an introductory treatment of ancient and Oriental history. The committee recommends that the first year's work should extend to 1648 A. D., and that the second year's work should extend from 1648 to 1914.

2. The committee recommends that the third year's work should be American history and civics, placing the emphasis of the first half year on the development of the American nation from 1760 to 1876, and the second half year on recent United States history and civics. (For this year's work the committee recommends a single text-book, dealing with the period before 1876, mainly historical, and treating the later period from the point of view of contemporary problems.)

3. The committee recommends that social and economic history be given at least as much attention as political history.

4. The committee recommends that every topic discussed in all this work shall be treated so as to show its connection with present American life and institutions, whenever it seems to the teacher valuable for the pupil.

5. The committee recommends that if Sections 1-4 be agreed to by the History Section, a statement of these guiding principles be presented immediately to the State Board of Education with the recommendation that they be used as a guide in the adoption of text-books in history a year hence.

6. The committee further recommends that on the adoption of new text-books in history, a committee be author-

ized to prepare an outline and syllabus which will serve as a guide to teachers in carrying out the recommendations of Sections 1-4.

The meeting was well attended, sixty teachers from various parts of the State being registered. The papers and addresses were of much interest and the sessions were attended by a number of persons not connected with history teaching. Prof. Beverley W. Bond, Jr., of Purdue University, presided over the meetings, and Miss Josephine M. Cox, of Shortridge High School, Indianapolis, was secretary and treasurer. Officers for the coming year were elected as follows: President, J. V. Masters, Rushville, Ind.; vice-president, Miss Hallie Farmer, Muncie, Ind.; secretary-treasurer, Charles H. Money, Indianapolis. Additional members of the Executive Committee are: Professor L. H. Gibson, Crawfordsville, Ind., and Prof. Harriette C. Palmer, Franklin, Ind.

## BOOK REVIEWS

EDITED BY PROFESSOR WAYLAND J. CHASE,  
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

FOWLER, H. N. *The History of Sculpture*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1916. Pp. xxvi, 445. \$2.00.

HAMLIN, A. D. F. *The History of Ornament, Ancient and Medieval*. New York: The Century Co., 1916. Pp. xxiv, 406. \$3.00.

For others than those specializing in the history of art these books have value. In every town where ancient history and medieval history are taught present-day architecture together with mural art constitutes an element of the environment of teacher and pupils which may often be advantageously related to aspects of history that are being studied in the class-room. To be able to point out concrete evidences of the obligations of one's own community to Egypt or Babylon or Greece or medieval Europe is to be able to enrich materially for one's boys and girls the subject of history. Such books as these equip the teacher for such service as well as assist otherwise in the interpretation of the text-book material. Both of them are lavishly illustrated and both may be accepted as authoritative. The former begins its account of the history of sculpture with the ancient Orient, including the Far East of Japan, China and India. The latter, beginning with primitive and savage times, and treating ornament as synonymous with decorative design, interprets for the reader the motives and the principles of the art expressed in ancient pottery and vases, and especially in the many forms of structural work of ancient and medieval peoples from the times of the Egyptians and Babylonians down through the Gothic period of architecture.

CALLAHAN, JAMES M. *Semi-Centennial History of West Virginia*. Charleston, W. Va.: Semi-Centennial Commission of West Virginia, 1914. Pp. 594. \$1.75, net. To libraries, \$1.00.

The first 302 pages of this book, two volumes in one, constitute the State history by Professor Callahan. The remainder is made up of articles by various contributors on subjects related to the natural resources and people of the State. The historical sketch may be said to begin with the Indian treaty of Fort Stanwix. Then follows a good account of the struggle of the Western with the Eastern part of the State in the two conventions of 1829-30 and 1851, giving in full the votes of each section on the more important issues. A rather surprising omission is that regarding the legislative debate or slavery in Virginia in

1831, which Professor Ambler has told so well. The account of the first Wheeling Convention and political events following are told without bias, and the author steered entirely clear of the controversy regarding the dismemberment of Virginia either to justify or condemn. The chief criticism of the history is that the author has not fully grasped or has not forcibly told the whole story of sectionalism in Virginia, which is to be an important topic in any history of West Virginia. But the story of the marvelous economic development of the State is an exhaustively told as can be expected within the limitations of this work. A good-sized section deals with the Virginia debt controversy. A feature that distinguishes it as a useful reference book is the series of maps which illustrate at a glance the votes on measures by counties; those opposite pages 150, 242, 246 and 247 are good examples. It is to be regretted that the author felt justified in economizing space to omit footnote references. A not very discriminating bibliography without comment appears at the close. One is impressed with the large number of local histories cited, many of which must not be authoritative; the better ones should have been noted and all the materials classified. Several reprints of acts relating to the formation of the State appear in an appendix. Numerous photographic illustrations of scenes in the State are distributed throughout the book. As the work has somewhat of a co-operative nature, slight personal touches appear that would not be expected in a straightforward history where only one person is responsible. Poetry and even the menu card of the semi-centennial dinner are printed.

Some typographical errors should be corrected: Page 145, "nally" must be intended for "finally;" opposite page 239, "specimen" is misspelled; opposite page 285, the series is the "South in the Building of the Nation," instead of "Making of the Nation," and on page 290, the correct title is Turner, "Rise of the New West," instead of "Rise of the West."

H. M. HENRY.

Emory and Henry College, Virginia.

KITSON, HARRY D. *How to Use Your Mind*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1916. Pp. 216. \$1.00.

Written by an instructor in psychology in the University of Chicago to serve the needs of students and teachers in the administration of supervised study, it presents in twelve brief chapters the nature of the intellectual problems confronting the freshmen, and suggests practical modes of attack upon them. Advice is given as to note-taking, formation of habits of study, ways of assisting and strengthening the memory and power of attention, preparation for examination, and the securing of such conditions of body as shall make for effective study. Other chapters describe intellectual processes which the student must employ successfully. Experts speak favorably of this book, which use with students also approves.

NEWTON, CAROLINE CLIFFORD. *Once Upon a Time in Connecticut*. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Co., 1916. Pp. vii, 140. 60 cents.

Published under the auspices of the Colonial Dames of Connecticut and with the endorsement of Professor C. M. Andrews, of Yale University, this constitutes very serviceable supplementary reading material in colonial history for grades below the high school. Well narrated accounts are given of a dozen incidents memorable in our nation's history. "Nathan Hale," "Old Wolf Putnam," "Three Judges," "The House of Hope" and "The Charter Oak" are some typical titles of its chapters. A dozen excellent illustrations, and at the end of each chapter good brief lists of references, add value to the book.

STREYIENSKI, CASIMIR. *The Eighteenth Century*. Translated from the French by H. N. Dickinson. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1917. Pp. 345. \$2.50.

This is the fourth volume of "The National History of France," edited by Fr. Finck-Brentano, who has himself assumed the authorship of the volume on the Middle Ages. Other collaborators are J. E. C. Borley, in an introduction; L. Batiffol, on the century of the Renaissance; Jacques Boulanger, on the great century, and Louis Madelin, in two volumes, one on the French Revolution, and the other on the Consulate and the Empire.

The tendency of these scholars to a more favorable attitude toward the institutions of monarchical France is well known. Speaking of the development of the modern spirit and the revolution, the author of the present volume says: "Soon a lamentable ruin was all that remained of the ancient edifice; our Acropolis was destroyed, and like that of Athens became but a shrine for pilgrims where some might mourn the vanity of human things, others to raise the song of victory." Unfortunately, the picture of the eighteenth century, even by this admirer of the old order, is far from endearing it to us. The approach is altogether from the personal side. There are pages devoted to the King and the details of his daily life, while the great social and intellectual movements of the age are given short shrift. It is old-fashioned history with some evidence of literary merit.

WM. E. LINGELBACH.

University of Pennsylvania.

CARLTON, ROBERT (Baynard Rush Hall). *The New Purchase*. Edited by James Albert Woodburn. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1916. Pp. xxxii, 522. \$2.00.

This reprint of a volume long out of print was brought out in connection with the recent centennial celebration of Indiana's admission to Statehood. That which gives the book its title was a tract of land acquired by the United States Government from the Indians in 1818, and from it thirty-seven of Indiana's counties were eventually made in whole or in part. To this region Mr. Hall, a Presbyterian clergyman and graduate of Union College and Princeton Theological Seminary, came in 1822 attracted by the opportunity to teach in the Indiana Seminary, recently established by the legislature of the State. This institution eight years later became Indiana College, and in 1838 Indiana University. Though by the time of his coming Indiana had been a State six years, the region of his residence was primitive wilderness, and during his stay of nearly ten years his life was that of a pioneer. His book is a record of his various experiences, and thus is a tale of the backwoods, an account of pioneer days and ways, and a picture of the Middle West in its beginnings. Though it sparkles with whimsical humor and interesting incident, it is characterized by fidelity to fact, and constitutes source material of high order of excellence. The editor calls it "an imperishable Indiana classic," and other competent critics support him in this judgment.

LORD, ROBERT HOWARD. *The Second Partition of Poland. A Study in Diplomatic History*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1915. Pp. xxx, 586. \$2.25.

This book is a worthy continuation of a notable series of scholarly works. Dr. Lord has made a very thorough study of a great mass of original source material little known to most American scholars and produced an excellent monograph. He comes to the conclusion that the Second Partition of Poland was not forced on the Tsarina Catherine II by Prussia, but was due rather to her own secret plans. In

a number of other matters, the author presents views more or less different from those generally accepted up to now, and substantiates them by extensive references to the original sources and by a collection of documents at the close of the book. The introduction and the first chapter (pages 3-63) are devoted to a good survey of conditions in Poland in the eighteenth century and the general international conditions affecting the partitions. These chapters are good reading for the more mature high school students of modern European history, but the main part of the book is too detailed for effective use in high schools.

Ohio State University.

CLARENCE PERKINS.

**BRYAN, WILHELMUS BOGART.** *A History of the National Capital.* Vol. II. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1916. Pp. xx + 642. \$5.00.

This volume is uniform in style, mechanical makeup and general purpose with the first, appearing about two years ago and reviewed in this *MAGAZINE* soon after the publication (Vol. VI, page 126). The first volume brings the narrative of the history of our Capital from the founding down to the close of the War of 1812 or thereabouts, and this volume carries the account to 1878. The period covered by the latter is perhaps far the more interesting. The work of research, careful detail, footnote annotation is well done in this, as was the case with its predecessor. A wealth of facts regarding Washington is painstakingly brought together. The criticisms of the former volume apply in general to the present volume. There is no logical division into chapters—merely mechanical divisions. Of course, this statement must be modified by the statement that the whole is done chronologically, and hence the chapters in a way point to periods. It gives a wonderful amount of detail regarding the buildings, streets, railways. Too, it does not neglect the political and social events that have any bearing on the history of the place. As instances, the slave-trade in the District and debates in Congress relating to the District are carefully noted.

But considering the voluminousness of the set and the expense, perhaps it will not reach as large a part of the general reading public as it deserves. The author might meet that need by a smaller condensed work. On the other hand, we must not overlook the fact that as a complete history of our National Capital the author has rendered a decidedly valuable historical service by not condensing it at all.

H. M. HENRY.

Emory and Henry College, Virginia.

**LIPSON, E., M.A.** *Europe in the Nineteenth Century.* An Outline History. London: A. and C. Black, 1916. Pp. iii, 298.

This brief history of the last century disclaims at the outset any effort at a treatment of the international features of European history. The author sets out rather to give "a concise and connected account of the internal development of the chief European States after the fall of Napoleon." (P. ii.) The plan is adhered to faithfully, but the execution is indifferent, and the American reader will not find anything here to entice him from the works on this period of European history already known and better done. To cite only as one example of evidence of the lack of a clear and comprehensive grasp of his subject, the muddled treatment of the Prussian revolutionary movement in 1848 may be cited. The Combined Diet of the Provincial Estates was summoned in 1847, and therefore not "as a consequence of the March Days" in 1848. What was summoned in 1848 was a Constituent Assembly. As a matter of emphasis it would be better to give at least a little more than a general

statement in one sentence to the Prussian Constitution of 1850, since it is still with slight modifications the fundamental law of the Prussian State, and abbreviate somewhat the account of the futile and uninteresting efforts at reorganization in Germany in 1850.

University of Pennsylvania.

WM. E. LINGELBACH.

### HISTORY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATIONS.

Additions to and corrections of the following list of associations are requested by the editor of the *MAGAZINE*:

Alabama History Teachers' Association—Secretary, D. G. Chase, Birmingham.

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#### BOOKS ON HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT PUBLISHED IN THE UNITED STATES FROM JANUARY 27 TO FEBRUARY 24, 1917.

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH.D.

##### American History.

- Anderson, August. Hyphenated; the life story of S. M. Swenson. [History of early Swedish settlers in Texas from 1838.] Austin, Tex.: [The Author]. 290 pp. \$1.50.
- Hewitt, Louise, compiler. Historic Trenton. Trenton, N. J.: C. L. Traver. 103 pp. \$1.00, net.
- Huxford, Folks, compiler and editor. History of Clinch County, Georgia. Macon, Ga.: J. W. Burke Co. 309 pp. \$1.75.
- Johnson, Rossiter. The fight for the Republic. Events in the war of secession. N. Y.: Putnam. 404 pp. \$2.50, net.
- Kellogg, Louise P. Early narratives of the Northwest. N. Y.: Scribner. 394 pp. \$3.00, net.
- Locke, Emma P. B., editor. Colonial Amherst. Milford, N. H.: W. B. and H. B. Rotch. 122 pp. \$1.25, net.
- McCook, Arthur R. New American history and government outlines. Chicago: Beckley Cardy Co. 112 pp. 25 cents.
- Mann, Herman. Life of Deborah Sampson, the female soldier in the war of the Revolution. Tarrytown, N. Y.: W. Abbatt. 191 pp. \$5.10.
- Parker, William T. Annals of old Ft. Cumming's, New Mexico, 1867-68. Northampton, Mass.: [The Author]. 56 pp. \$1.50, net.
- Waterman, John H. General history of Seward County, Nebraska. Beaver Crossing, Neb.: [The Author]. 291 pp. \$1.50.
- Wheeler, Everett P. Sixty years of American Life, 1850-1910. N. Y.: Dutton. 489 pp. \$2.50, net.

##### English History.

- Cunningham, William. The progress of capitalism in England. N. Y.: Putnam. 144 pp. (6¼ pp. bibls.). 90 cents, net.
- Klein, Arthur J. Intolerance in the reign of Elizabeth, Queen of England. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. 218 pp. (18 pp. bibls.). \$2.00, net.
- Jackman, William T. The development of transportation in modern England. 2 vols. N. Y.: Putnam. 460, 360 pp. (62 pp. bibls.). \$7.25, net.
- Tedder, Arthur W. The navy of the Restoration from the Death of Cromwell to the Treaty of Breda. N. Y.: Putnam. 234 pp. (39 pp. bibls.). \$2.25, net.

**European History.**

- Giordani, Paolo. The German colonial empire. N. Y.: Macmillan. 156 pp. \$1.00, net.
- Hazen, Charles D. Modern European History. N. Y.: Holt. 650 pp. \$1.75.
- Jordan, David Starr. Alsace-Lorraine: a study in conquest. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Co. 113 pp. \$1.00, net.
- Leslie, Shane. The Celt and the world; a study of the relation of Celt and Teuton in history. N. Y.: Scribner. 224 pp. \$1.25, net.

**The Great War.**

- Bryce, James, Viscount, and others. The war of democracy; the Allies' statement. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday Page. 440 pp. \$2.00, net.
- Currie, Col. J. A. "The Red Watch;" with the first Canadian division in Flanders. N. Y.: Dutton. 294 pp. \$1.50, net.
- Gibbs, Philip. The battles of the Somme. N. Y.: Doran. 377 pp. \$2.00, net.
- Hurgonje, Christian S. The revolt in Arabia. N. Y.: Putnam. 150 pp. 75 cents, net.
- I accuse; by a German. N. Y.: Grosset & Dunlap. 445 pp. 75 cents.
- Palmer, Frederick. My second year of the war. N. Y.: Dodd, Mead. 404 pp. \$1.50, net.
- Spiegel, von und zu Peckelsheim, Edgar Baron. The adventures of U-202, an actual narrative [by her commander]. N. Y.: Century Co. 202 pp. \$1.00, net.
- Visscher, Charles de. Belgium's case. N. Y.: Doran. 164 pp. (3½ pp. bibls.). \$1.00, net.
- Wells, Herbert G. Italy, France and Britain at War. N. Y.: Macmillan. 285 pp. \$1.50, net.

**Miscellaneous.**

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## CONTENTS

The War and History Teaching in Europe, by A. E. McKinley	-	-	143
Minnesota History Teachers' Syllabus, by C. B. Kuhlmann	-	-	147
Periodical Literature, edited by Dr. G. B. Richards	-	-	149, 161
Historical Light on the League to Enforce Peace	-	-	150
The Outline Map — How to Use It, by W. L. Wallace	-	-	159
Use of Magazines in History Teaching, by Prof. D. S. Duncan	-	-	160
History in Summer Schools, 1917	-	-	162
Reports from the Historical Field	-	-	166
Book Reviews, edited by Prof. W. J. Chase	-	-	168
Recent Historical Publications, listed by Dr. C. A. Coulomb	-	-	169

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# The History Teacher's Magazine

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## The War and History Teaching in Europe

BY ALBERT E. MCKINLEY.

It is a commonplace to say that the war has had a great influence upon the schools of Europe. We are all familiar with the destruction of school and university property in the actual field of battle; we know, too, that school property has frequently been put to military uses, and that university laboratories have been turned over to semi-military experimentation. There has been a withholding of funds from many educational enterprises; London's educational budget was reduced by four and a half million dollars, and Mr. Carnegie's United States Steel bonds given to Scottish foundations, have been exchanged for British national bonds.

The student body has been drawn upon heavily for war purposes. The universities throughout Europe have lost by far the greater part of their students, in some cases those in attendance equalling only one-fifth or one-tenth of the normal attendance. The great English public schools, the French lycées, the German gymnasia, and secondary schools throughout Europe have in some cases given all their upper class students to the war. Even in the elementary schools, laws for compulsory school attendance and prohibiting child labor, have been almost universally ignored; in England alone between 150,000 and 200,000 children, who should by law be in attendance at school, have been released for war purposes. Boys and girls are receiving four or five times the wages before the war, they are spending freely, and succumbing to the temptations of their new freedom. Statistics of juvenile crime from Germany and England show an alarming increase in the number of young culprits.

School and college faculties have been depleted even more than the student body. Able English and French scholars of Greek, have been sent around to Salonica to act as interpreters. Educational journals print long lists of the names of teachers and professors who have fallen in the war, one number of a German periodical containing over six hundred names of educational workers who had met the "Heldentod." Perhaps a more serious loss than that from actual death among teachers, has come about by the withdrawal of thousands of teachers from their life-occupation to fill administrative, clerical and military positions. As a result of these drafts upon the teaching force, the schools and higher institutions are poorly and inadequately manned.

Not only have the educational systems of Europe suffered in material equipment, and in the numbers and character of the students and teachers, but these

systems also have been subjected to a severe popular and administrative criticism. In England the loudest attack has been made upon the so-called impractical purely cultural character of the educational system. The German methods of teaching science and encouraging research have been held up as models. Objection has been made, too, to the disjointed character of the educational system of England. Many suggestions have appeared looking to securing greater co-operation between the elementary schools, the public schools, the private institutions, the universities and governmental training schools. Proposals for changes and reconstruction of school curricula have been common in all the countries at war. Such changes almost always look toward the strengthening of the work in science and technical training; while the classical languages, ancient history and liberal branches are called upon to surrender part or all of the time previously given to them. The English universities accept six months military service in lieu of compulsory Greek; the same language has lost its position in the Russian higher institutions; and a strong demand exists in Germany for its curtailment. Teachers of the classics and of cultural branches have been compelled to take united action to protect the position of their subjects. European school systems, especially in England and Germany, are becoming more democratic under the influence of the reformers. The education of girls receives more attention, and children from poor families will have more opportunity to enter institutions of higher learning.

History has occupied a large place both in the changed education of war times, and in the plans for reconstruction after the war. Looking now at the actual effects of the war on history teaching in foreign schools, we may note three principal influences: First, the teaching of the war itself; second, the emphasis in schools upon patriotism and national sentiment; and third, the shifting of interest from ancient to modern, particularly, nineteenth century, history. A most interesting account of the study of the war, its causes, incidents, and possible results, is to be found in the report of a French educational inspector who writes in the *Revue Pédagogique* (June, 1915).

The writer of this article had abundant opportunity while on his journeys of inspection in the Department of Finistère and from reports made directly to him, to learn the actual facts. He arranges these facts under the several subjects of instruction showing how the war is being made use of as an educational ma-

terial for almost all subjects in the curriculum, from formal morals, on one hand, to arithmetic on the other.

With enthusiasm he says teachers and scholars enter into the class in morals. There is no longer need of books, the material of the subject lies all about them; it is in the trenches at the front; it is found in these Breton villages in the departing regiments, in the armies where they are equipped, in the vacant fireplaces, in the works of charity performed by all. A letter comes from a teacher in the army; it is read, and forms a lesson in morals. A young Belgian girl joins the class, the little martyr must tell her story of suffering. A scholar's uncle has been named for a military decoration; again material for a lesson. A soldier's funeral takes place in the village; the school children attend and sing patriotic songs. A wounded soldier comes to the school on an errand while the pupils are at recess. At a signal from the teacher they form in double line at the entrance, salute the soldier, who seriously returns it. Then he gives an account of his campaign, taking the children to Belgium, retreating with the French army, and suddenly exclaims "We have come near to Paris, my children, and one great morning we said to the Germans, 'Halt! You shall not advance farther!'" This is the glorious battle of the Marne where the French soldiers conducted themselves as heroes. In that battle I was wounded." He raises his cloak, opens his clothing and shows the wound in his chest. "That is why I walk as an old man, carrying a cane, and salute with my left hand." No wonder that the next morning's lesson in morals was spirited, that all wished to take part in it, and that the teacher scarcely recognized his class. Formal arrangements of lessons based on such material have been presented to the teachers, who have responded enthusiastically. In visiting one school, the inspector found apples, pears, nuts, and tidbits in a corner of the hall. The pupils had saved their daily lunches, and on Sunday the teacher and a delegation of pupils visited the hospitals and distributed to the soldiers these dainties of which they had deprived themselves.

Similar means have been taken to rejuvenate the study of civics, although this inspector cannot report as yet satisfactory results in all cases.

In the work in history there have been two new movements, both of which have been encouraged by official action. The first of these is the formal study of the war itself. This has been carried on in many ways and with varying success according to the ability of the teacher and equipment of the school. Daily newspapers and illustrated weeklies as well as official documents are used to familiarize the pupils with the progress of events. Outline maps and charts furnish a background for marking each change of battle scene. M. Duval has worked out plans for the consecutive study of the war from its opening causes down to the most recent events.

Instruction in history has been influenced also by the desire to explain to the pupils the development of politics and industry in the nineteenth century and

to show how the present situation came into being. To accomplish this we are told there must be frequent comparisons between the past and the present; all the happenings of the past must be used to make plain the present. The trench warfare of Cæsar against Vercingetorix at Alesia is compared with modern trench warfare; the barbarian invasions of the fifth century with that of 1914; the campaign of Attila and the German campaign of 1914; the feudalism of old France with the modern feudalism of Germany; English enmity toward France in the Hundred Years' War with the present Entente; early artillery with that of the present; and so on. One principal writes that the history of France shows that she has always been menaced by foreign invasion, yet has always found her Du Guesclins, her Joan of Arcs, her Bayards—brave Frenchmen and brave Frenchwomen to save the country from danger. "This idea," says our inspector, "is excellent. It ought to be carried out as a crusade."

In his latest instructions to his subordinates the inspector urges also the study of the history of France's allies and of her enemies that the students may realize how England, the former enemy has become a friend; and how Prussia has always been antagonistic. Finally for the history teacher comes the advice to encourage students to keep notebooks upon the war, containing on the left hand pages extracts from letters, general accounts, and contemporary poetry, while on the right hand pages a connected narrative of the war would be constructed. Such scrap books and notebooks would be read, reread, and consulted not only by pupils but by all the members of their family.

In geography classes the war areas are studied in detail, particularly those within the French boundaries. Maps and pictures are used extensively and also multigraphed maps and other material.

It is, however, in classes in the French language and composition that the instructions of the supervisors respecting the teaching of the war, have been carried out by the teachers most faithfully. Here, in dictation and composition, current events are used most successfully; and students are taught to recite the best and most stirring examples of current literature on the war. Among the topics so treated are: How the Prussian Guard Was Decimated; An Heroic Peasant; The Life of Our Soldiers in the Trenches; To the Soldiers of France; A Convoy of German Prisoners in Brittany; The Two Patriotisms; Appeal to the Children of France; A Letter to One Who Has Not Received It. There has been, too, a revival of interest in older patriotic writings, such as: The French Soldier (by Voltaire); The Death of Turanne (by Serigne); Yes, My Colonel (by Chevert a Prague); France in Danger (by E. About); The Cavalry Charge at Waterloo (by V. Hugo); Patriotism and Humanity" (by Bersot). Pupils are encouraged to write about everything which happens in the home, the school, and the village; it may be grandmother's remarks on the newspaper, or father's letter from the front, or a visit to a wounded soldier, or a

letter written by the pupil to a relative or friend in the trenches. Sometimes the subject is more imaginative, as when the pupil is asked to comment upon the action and reply of a soldier who gave his knapsack as a protection to his superior officer with the remark, "I do not count; but you, you are of value to all the rest of us."

In a similar fashion the war has entered into the instruction in other subjects. Manual instruction for girls is directed toward objects useful in the war. In the physical and natural sciences new or more precise information has been given to classes about antiseptics, drinking water, conductivity of heat and the best forms of garments for protection from cold, the absence of epidemics in 1914, the making of explosives; the manufacture of cannon, the principles of trajectories, the soldier's food, and the influence of alcoholism.

Even into the arithmetic class the war has entered in some schools. How long will it take a battleship to overtake a steamboat, if each moves at a certain rate? or how long can a besieged garrison subsist if its rations are cut down to a certain percentage of the usual ration? or how long will it take a party of engineers to dig a trench which ought to be completed in eight days when all work sixteen hours a day, if, after three days of work, a certain number fall ill, and the remainder are able to work only twelve hours a day?—these and similar problems keep alive even in pure mathematics the "ton du jour."

Detailed study of the war is not confined to one section of France, nor to France alone. A circular of the French ministry of Public Instruction states the principle that "the rôle of education at the moment [is] to second the French armies by informing the boys and girls of France why their country [is] fighting—for what past, for what future, for what ideas." In England we are told by Lord Selborne that "in some form or other the war has thoroughly permeated the elementary education of the country and the causes of the war have been most thoroughly explained to the children all over the land." Specific instructions for the teaching of the war in higher schools, as well as in elementary schools, have been issued by the educational authorities of England, France, Prussia, Saxony, Wurtemberg, Hungary, and probably by other states of Europe.

In the second place, the war has created a demand for instruction in national patriotism. We have had newspaper accounts of the "morning hate lessons" of the Germans, and most of us have heard the story of the class of German children, who, in responding to the query what country they hated most, replied, America! A recent despatch through London [!] gives the text of some new German "hate-songs." Such cases can not be taken as typical, but it is certain that the war has often displaced internationalism by a deep and intense, but very narrow nationalism.

The change in this respect is most worked in England, where, previous to the war, there was very little formal instruction in patriotism. France and Germany, as Mr. Jonathan French Scott has recently

told us so well, have for years consciously trained their young people in the duties of citizenship. They have taught the Hohenzollern tradition on one side of the Rhine, and the necessity for regaining Alsace and Lorraine on the other side of the river. In England the citizen has been expected unconsciously to become a Britisher. As the "New Statesman" said recently, "One's country ought not to be turned into a golden calf, or any other sort of a calf. Rather it is something living and real, without which we seem but guzzlers and beggars, without home, without lineage, without sun. It is created of the air and the earth, and all those ideals and experiences which transfigure the lives of men. To love it is as natural as to be happy. To serve it is as natural—and as difficult—as to be honest or gentle or agreeable or virtuous. But to schoolmaster small boys and girls into this love and service is almost as superfluous as to hector them into loving a perfect mother, or to lecture them into a taste for honey or wild strawberries."

This has been the past attitude of the Englishman, but the war has witnessed a demand from school authorities, from upper class statesmen and members of the House of Lords that patriotism be taught in the elementary schools.

The Board of Education in several circulars, the London County Council Education office, various Teachers' Associations and the Welsh Board of Education have all pronounced strongly in favor of the use of the schools in the teaching of the war and of patriotism.

In addition to magazine articles many books have been issued to assist in the formal teaching of patriotism and civics. An interesting one of these is by Stephen Paget, entitled, "Essays for Boys and Girls; A First Guide Towards the Study of the War" (Macmillan Co., London, 1915). At the outset the pupil's interest is aroused as follows "In all your study of the war, make this your first and foremost thought, that the war is for you. It is you who will enjoy the new order of things when the war is done. Your countrymen are giving their lives for their country; it is your country, and in it you will pass your life. Our dead have died for you. . . . It is you who will find this world better than they found it. You will live in peace, because they died in war: you will go safe and free, because they went under discipline, and into danger, up to the moment of their death. You will have a good time, because they suffered. To you, who gain by their loss, and whose life is made comfortable by their lives laid down, comes the question, from countless little wooden crosses over graves in France and Belgium and Gallipoli, and from all the unmarked graves of the sea, *Is it nothing to you?* Why, the war is your war. You will enter into all that it achieves, and inherit all that it earns; and the miseries of it will be the making of your happiness. There are many good reasons why a man should fight for his country; but they come to this one reason, that he is fighting for the future of his country. You are the future. We older people so soon will be gone: you will stay here, you for whom your countrymen to-



day are in the toils of this war. You are the future, we are the past. We have lived in a world which you never saw; and you will live in a world which we shall never see."

Upon the moral value of the war we have the following most remarkable teaching: "But, oh, ye carefully brought-up boys and girls, bless ye the Lord, praise Him, and magnify Him forever—see them now, what the army has done for them; how it has set them up, body and soul, brought out the best in them, stamped out the bad in them. . . . That is the grace, or magic, of discipline: it is able to make out of a man, a different man, not that the navy and the army are the only kingdom of discipline. We go under discipline at school, and at home, and in the competition of business, and in all times of illness or failure, and so forth. But in the navy and army, these three, Discipline, Obedience, Loyalty, are enthroned on every hour of the day's work, inseparable and insuperable; great in peace; greatest in war. And when we think what our sailors and soldiers are . . . we can believe that where Discipline, Obedience, and Loyalty are, there God is. . . . It is just the plain fact that the war is making a better nation of us. . . ."

In the pamphlet issued by the Welsh Board of Education entitled "Patriotism" we have the following: "The British Empire—'our country' in its widest sense—does not consist of subjugated nations; it is the home of free peoples: therein lies its strength and the ground of our pride in it. We must see to it that we keep it free: we must strive to make it better."

"Bullying, blustering, swaggering behaviour to other nations [is] just as objectionable to them as the big bully's conduct in school is to his school companions. The Germans' 'Hymn of Hate' is unworthy of any great nation.

"A hundred years ago our fathers had to face a terrible danger—as we do now—that of seeing their liberties swept away by Napoleon, whose armies threatened Europe as Germany's do to-day. They rose up and fought until they won, and, by their sacrifices, they gave their children and grandchildren safety for a hundred years. It is now our task to do the same—our fathers' voices are calling to us 'We did it for you—you do it for your children'; that is why we are at war now. These hundred years of security, for which our fathers paid a heavy price, have given us increased wealth and comforts which we have enjoyed in the past—great books have been written, schools and colleges have been founded, inventions and discoveries have transformed our life, arts have flourished, civilization has spread, with all its accompanying advantages. We must not, however, forget that honor and freedom are above all these."

In the third place history teaching has been greatly influenced by a desire to understand the causes of the present war. As an aid to this a greater emphasis is demanded upon recent history, upon the study of modern languages, and the continual use, even of ancient history and the classics, to elucidate the present. One German writer would have German chil-

dren study modern languages, even English, so they can understand the lines of "Rule Britannia,"

"All thine shall be the subject main,  
And every shore it circles thine."

Another would study modern history, even that of England, in order to learn her means of attaining imperialism. The movement is seen in France and England, but particularly in Germany. "*Vergangenheit und Gegenwart*," the history teacher's magazine of Germany has been crowded with articles discussing *pro* and *con* the values of recent history (see Vols. IV, V, VI *passim*). To obtain time for regular class-work in the history of the nineteenth century—and several official instructions have enjoined such study—other subjects must, it is said, be sacrificed. Time should be taken from ancient history, medieval history, the classical languages, and even mathematics, in order to find room in the curricula for modern history. It is even said that there should be less of Prussian dynastic history, and more of German nationalism, more of the history of other states, more of international relations, more of modern imperialism. Thus in the countries at war, the struggle has brought demands for far-reaching changes in the school curriculum. These demands, only in part satisfied thus far, seek a more practical education, and more instruction in science; less of classical culture and less of ancient and medieval history; in Germany, less of dynastic reverence; and in Germany and England, more of national patriotism; more training in industry and economics; and an appreciation of the present obtained through the study of national civics and of recent history.

An English view is shown in the following quotation from "*Science Progress*," (January, 1916, p. 277):

"The nation is waking to the tremendous part that applied science is playing in the war. Does it yet realize that in the industrial and commercial struggle that must inevitably follow the war, science will play an equally important part? If we are adequately to meet the needs of the future, we must educate in natural science a larger proportion of the youth of the nation than we have done hitherto. This is essential in order to make good our deficiencies in the past and to replace those who fall in the war."

It is to be regretted that we cannot here review the influence of the war on archaeology, on historical research, on historical literature and publications, and in other departments of art and culture. One more quotation will show how far even England has advanced from pre-bellum days. Sidney Low, writing in the "*Fortnightly Review*" for February, 1916, says concerning the historians of the past century:

"We have to understand, that the quiet pool into which the [19th century historians] had drifted, ruffled only by the bloodless contests of the polling booth and the platform was no more than a resting place in that epic of recurring struggles, and passionate enmities, and clashing ambitions, which is the story of mankind.

"I have sometimes wondered whether this tranquil confidence is more than a reflection of the peaceful atmosphere by which so many leading writers of that period were surrounded. Surely there never was a group of literary workers who spent their lives in such enviable calm. Tennyson, Browning, Grote, Mill, Buckle, Herbert Spencer, Ruskin, Froude, Freeman, Stubbs, Matthew Arnold, Swinburne, Walter Bagehot—what prosperous, respectable, unworldly-fortunate persons they for the most part were! These bankers, and bishops, and country gentlemen, these sons of wealthy shipowners and wine-merchants, these well-placed civil servants, in their decorous middle-class domesticity—no wonder they found it easy to take sane and temperate views! No wonder they wor-

shipped a 'sweet reasonableness' and looked from the windows of their admirably furnished libraries, upon a world which they hoped had almost finished with the old barbaric violences, the inconvenient cruelties of the past.

"... on the whole what a stable, guarded country it must have seemed, especially to people with good regular incomes. One has only to contrast it with the more agitated *milieu* in which we pass our perturbed days. Arnold would have found even less 'freedom to grow wise' if his literary labors had been liable to be interrupted by a Zeppelin bomb dropped at his front door, or his pleasant Continental holidays diversified by internment in a German prison-camp."

## The Minnesota History Teachers' Syllabus

CONTRIBUTED BY C. B. KUHLMANN, CENTRAL HIGH SCHOOL, MINNEAPOLIS.

At the 1914 meeting of the Minnesota Educational Association the history teachers of the State decided to make an effort to more thoroughly standardize the history work in the high schools of the state. For this purpose a committee was appointed which was to outline courses and prepare a syllabus. This committee, which was made up of Profs. A. C. Krey, A. B. White and W. S. Davis, of the University of Minnesota, Assistant Superintendent W. H. Schilling, of Duluth, and Dr. O. M. Dickerson, of the Winona Normal School, presented its outline of courses at the 1916 meeting at which it was unanimously approved by the teachers present. It is expected that the syllabus itself will be published early in the fall. In view of the agitation which is going on all over the country for a revision of the high school history courses, teachers in general will be interested in the program of this Committee.

The Minnesota schools generally have followed the program of the Committee of Seven. It is true that only the larger schools of the State have found themselves in position to offer four years of history and many of the smaller schools can offer modern and United States history only in alternate years, but in the main the Committee of Seven report was followed, not only in the arrangement of courses, but in aims and methods as well. It is true that the development of vocational courses has, in our larger high schools, caused a revival of the one year course in general history as an introduction to courses in commercial and industrial history, but the number of schools offering these courses and the number of students taking them is not large enough to give their statistics a place in the State High School Inspector's report. Three years of history—if we include civics under that term—ancient to 800, medieval and modern (including English), and United States history and civics has been the program offered by practically all Minnesota high schools. Modifications of this plan have been confined almost wholly to such slight variations in the

content of the courses or the treatment of the subject matter as the individuality of the teacher—or superintendent—might suggest. To keep these innovations within reasonable bounds in history as in all other subjects, a committee of high school superintendents drew up the "Suggested Outlines for Study Courses in Minnesota High Schools" which was published by the State Department of Education in 1918.

History in the Minnesota schools has held its own pretty well. For the twelve years from 1908 to 1915 we even find a slight increase in the percentage of students enrolled. On an average, for the twelve years, in every one of our high schools, 24 per cent. of the students were taking ancient history, 11 per cent. were taking modern, 6 per cent. English history and 8 per cent. United States. If to these we add the courses in civics and economics we would find that more than 60 per cent. of the students are taking work in the social sciences. Looking at it from another standpoint, however, we note that the average pupil is taking history in the high school only about half the term. He has not for twelve years taken more than two years work in history. With conditions as they are it is unlikely that he will ever find time to take more.

There are of course many factors which tend toward a change in the history curriculum. The development of historical knowledge in the last decade and a half, the still greater development of the methods of teaching history, the change in our opinions as to what constitutes history, all made a re-outlining of the standard courses desirable. And while there have been these great changes in the study, we have still greater, and more far-reaching changes in the high school itself. The increase in membership, the change in organization, the changes in aims and objects of its courses, are all changes which the history program must take into account.

To get some idea of the attitude of the Minnesota schools on the present program, a questionnaire was

prepared and sent out to the high school superintendents of the State. There has been so much criticism of established courses, especially from the administrative side of the schools, so many proposals for radical changes, that the results were rather a surprise to me. They go to show, I think, that in our State the average superintendent is essentially a conservative. He is fairly well satisfied with present conditions and is inclined to make haste slowly with proposals for radical change. There are many things he would like to see improved, of course, but he is not a revolutionist.

To begin with, he sees no reason for offering four "blocks" of history when the average student takes only two and very few take more than three years work. Out of 91 schools replying to the question asking how many courses should be offered, only 19 wanted a four year course, while 58 preferred a three year course. When asked if there should be an increase of the time allotted to civics—a very pertinent question in view of the present day agitation for community civics, etc.—only 27 replied favorably while 58 answered in the negative. They were nearly unanimous on the proposition that history should be so taught as to give greater emphasis to social and economic aspects of development (78 for, 6 against), but only 12 were in favor of a separate course in economics as compared to 57 against. Even on the question of extending the time allotted to modern history there was great difference of opinion, 40 voting in favor of it and 44 against. On the correlative proposition of decreasing the time allotted to ancient history they seemed to be almost as evenly divided, 35 being in favor of the decrease and 24 against. Finally they were asked to rank the various courses in the order of their importance for the majority of students and it was found that American history was considered most important, modern second, ancient third, English history fourth, with commercial and industrial history at the bottom of the list.

With this situation as a basis the Committee proposed the following changes in the history courses:

1. Introductory Course: Ancient History to 1500 A. D. First semester: Ancient History to the time of Constantine. Second semester: From time of Constantine to c.1500 A. D. (Important phases of English history to be included.)

2. Modern History—including English—1500 to the present. First semester: 1500 to 1815 A. D. Second semester: 1815 to the present. (In both semesters increased attention to industrial, commercial and colonial development.)

3. American History. (A year course urged as necessary.) If only one semester can be devoted to the subject, the course shall begin with the Revolution.

4. Industrial and Social Development. A. The content of the whole history program to be so revised that there shall be throughout a proper proportion of economic and social to political and constitutional history. B. Also in the selection of reading, a specific

list of duplicate references on economic and social history to be included.

5. Supplementary Reading. The supplementary reading references to be so arranged that they shall afford not only additional information, but also systematic training in gaining accurate information. This shall be done by a progressive series of problems.

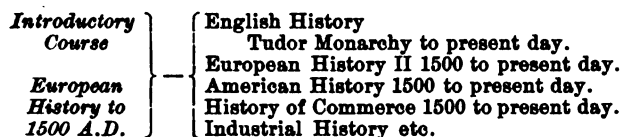
When the essentially conservative character of the Minnesota Superintendents is considered, and with it the fact that this syllabus is to be used mainly by the great mass of the schools, whose needs are essentially the same, it is not surprising that the committee was not inclined to consider any revolutionary changes in program. They felt it would be wiser to leave out of consideration, on the one hand the relatively small number of schools that were mainly concerned with the preparation for Eastern Colleges and on the other, the group that desired history courses designed to fit distinctively vocational needs. Because civics in our State has come to be a distinct and separate course not only in aims and methods, but more especially in its teaching personnel—civics also is to be omitted from the syllabus. On the other hand, the Committee was willing to recognize the demand for a greater emphasis on social and economic phases of history. They are preparing to outline some very great changes in the matter of handling supplementary reading. They are urging increased time for American history, which the teachers of the State demand.

The big question the Committee had to answer was the one relating to the division point—for the work of the first two years. Any date is of course a more or less arbitrary one, chosen for convenience sake. Many dates have been chosen at one time or another to mark the dividing line between ancient and modern history and not every history teacher is satisfied that the choice of the Committee of Seven was a particularly happy one. But while the Minnesota Committee were willing to emphasize modern history even at the expense of ancient, they were not prepared to go as far as the N. E. A. Committee which selected 1600 or 1700 as the date—not to speak of text book writers who want to carry the first year's work down to 1750. They felt that this would place too great a burden on the first year teacher. It was bad enough to add the period from 800 to 1500 in European history to her field without also insisting on her teaching American colonial history.

The date 1500 appealed to them in many respects as a desirable compromise. It would allow a greatly increased emphasis on the modern period without such an enormous increase in the work of the ancient-history teacher. The date 1500 would be of advantage because it does actually mark changes which even the most immature high school student may grasp, between ancient and modern times. The great characteristics of modern civilization, freedom of thought, freedom of religion, constitutional government, the development of the new world, are just developing. The strong national states of the present day have

just arisen. The Renaissance is not yet ended—the Reformation just beginning.

For the history program as a whole the division point affords some distinct advantages. For those who wish to emphasize modern history we may point out that the great movements just referred to can by this division be studied from their beginnings—which could not be done if they adhered strictly to the 1700 or 1750 date. By putting the division point at 1500 we will have a single line of development followed in the first year course from which all the following courses will diverge. We may represent the idea by means of a diagram thus:



The comparatively few schools that continue to offer English history have usually a semester course. In that time it would be folly to try to cover the whole field—much better to leave the beginnings to the introductory course in history and begin the English history proper with the Tudor Monarchy. For the American history one can not but feel that the colonial history is too essential a part of our history to have us submerge it in English, or worse still consider it only as a part of general European development of that period. It would be far better to give a whole year to American history and begin at 1500—where the introductory course leaves off. As for commercial and economic or industrial history—the developments in these lines before the beginning of modern times have had so little influence on our commerce or industry that they may safely be omitted. But this is not true of the economic revolution of the 15th and 16th centuries, which the 1700 or 1750 dividing line would logically compel us to omit in these courses. Far better, again, to start the commercial and economic histories at the beginning of modern times—in 1500.

The teacher of ancient history who has found the time all too short to cover the period to 800 satisfactorily may well wonder what she can possibly do when the whole of the medieval period is added to her year's work. But she must recognize that the course will cease to be history in the proper sense of the term. It will become rather an introduction to the study of history. We may well give up any idea of preserving historical continuity in dealing with the Oriental peoples and refer to them only incidentally in connection with the story of the Greek and Romans. Even with these nations the political history will only be the thinnest possible thread. Perhaps this will not be altogether a loss if we are to concern ourselves with past conditions rather than past events as the new history would have us do. If we are to get away from the traditional basis of chronology and politics "and organize our history on the basis the children's own immediate interests, selecting from any part of the past those facts which meet the needs of

present growth," then clearly it will be possible to eliminate much of the material that is usually taught in the first year of history and the organization of this first year's work as outlined by the committee will not be an impossible task.

## Periodical Literature

EDITED BY GERTRUDE BRAMLETTE RICHARDS, PH.D.

"English Criminal Law and Benefit of the Clergy During the Eighteenth and Early Nineteenth Centuries," by Arthur L. Cross, in the "American Historical Review" for April, is of especial interest now as giving a historical background for a much-discussed present-day question.

John R. Silliman's article on "Old Mexico and New in Querétaro" (April "Scribner's") is beautifully illustrated by photographs of a little known corner of Mexico. The article itself is one of the most interesting and reliable that has yet appeared.

"Our Foreign-Born Citizens" ("National Geographic Magazine" for February), with its splendid illustrations, is one of the most telling articles on the immigrant in America that has yet appeared.

Ex-President William H. Taft's article on "The Crisis" ("Yale Review" for April) is an argument for changing our foreign policy, for compulsory military training, and for continuing our efforts to enforce peace by means of an organized world peace.

"The Polish Problem," by Dr. E. J. Dillon ("Fortnightly" for March) is an analysis of Germany's relations with Poland, and speculations on the result to Western Europe of an independent Poland.

The Rt. Hon. Sir Charles Hobhouse, M. P., writes on "America and the War" in the "Contemporary Review" for March. This is a continuation of the author's article on the same subject written a year ago. America's attitude toward the war, and toward England, comes in for much criticism, but the policy of President Wilson is unhesitatingly commended.

William E. Dodd writes on "The Social and Economic Background of Woodrow Wilson" in the March "Journal of Political Economy." This is more a study of the President's personal antecedents than of national affairs, although he pays much attention to the sections which have supported him.

K. K. Kawakami's article on Japan and Germany ("Forum" for April) is a good study of affairs and possible alliances in the Orient. He sees in Germany's proposal for an alliance with Japan a desire to "make up" on the part of the German Imperial Government.

"What Shall England Do? The Aftermath of the Social Revolution," by Arthur Gleason (April "Century"), is an attempt to answer two questions, Can the nature of work be ennobled? Can spiritual values be restored to modern life? in the light of the industrial democracy which is arriving in England. Kuno Francke's "The Duty of the German American" in the same magazine defines that duty as doing "whatever he can to secure a fair hearing for the aims and methods of German policies before the court of American public opinion," and to keep his oath of loyalty to this country without condition or reservation.

(Continued on page 151)

# Historical Light on the League to Enforce Peace<sup>1</sup>

## Official View of the Objects of the League

### THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES.

*First annual assemblage, League to Enforce Peace, May 27, 1916:*

I am sure that I speak the mind and wish of the people of America when I say that the United States is willing to become a partner in any feasible association of nations formed in order to realize these objects and make them secure against violation. . . .

I came only to avow a creed and give expression to the confidence I feel that the world is even now upon the eve of a great consummation, when some common force will be brought into existence which shall safeguard right as the first and most fundamental interest of all peoples and all governments, when coercion shall be summoned not to the service of political ambition or selfish hostility, but to the service of a common order, a common justice and a common peace.

*Diplomatic note to belligerent powers, December 18, 1916:*

Each wishes itself to be made secure in the future, along with all other nations and peoples, against the recurrence of wars like this and against aggression of selfish interference of any kind. Each would be jealous of the formation of any more rival leagues to preserve an uncertain balance of power amidst multiplying suspicions; but each is ready to consider the formation of a league of nations to insure peace and justice throughout the world. . . .

In the measures to be taken to secure the future peace of the world the people and Government of the United States are as vitally and as directly interested as the Governments now at war. Their interest, moreover, in the means to be adopted to relieve the smaller and weaker peoples of the world of the peril of wrong and violence is as quick and ardent as that of any other people or Government. They stand ready, and even eager, to co-operate in the accomplishment of these ends, when the war is over, with every influence and resource at their command.

## THE LEAGUE TO ENFORCE PEACE

### The Warrant From History

#### PREAMBLE TO THE PROGRAM.

Throughout five thousand years of recorded history, peace, here and there established, has been kept, and its area has been widened, in one way only. Individuals have combined their efforts to suppress violence in the local community. Communities have co-operated to maintain the authoritative state and to preserve peace within its borders. States have formed leagues or confederations or have otherwise co-operated to establish peace among themselves. Always peace has been made and kept, when made and kept at all, by the superior power of superior numbers acting in unity for the common good.

Mindful of this teaching of experience, we believe and solemnly urge that the time has come to devise and to create a working union of sovereign nations to establish peace among themselves and to guarantee it by all known and available sanctions at their command, to the end that civilization may be conserved, and the progress of mankind in comfort, enlightenment and happiness may continue.

#### PROGRAM OF THE LEAGUE.

##### THE DEFINITE PROPOSALS.

We believe it to be desirable for the United States to join a league of nations binding the signatories to the following:

<sup>1</sup> Printed with the approval of the World Peace Foundation.

#### INTERNATIONAL COURT.

*First:* All justiciable questions arising between the signatory powers, not settled by negotiation, shall, subject to the limitations of treaties, be submitted to a judicial tribunal for hearing and judgment, both upon the merits and upon any issue as to its jurisdiction of the question.

#### COUNCIL OF CONCILIATION.

*Second:* All other questions arising between the signatories, and not settled by negotiation, shall be submitted to a council of conciliation for hearing, consideration and recommendation.

#### SANCTIONS.

*Third:* The signatory powers shall jointly use forthwith both their economic and military forces against any one of their number that goes to war, or commits acts of hostility, against another of the signatories before any question arising shall be submitted as provided in the foregoing.

*The following interpretation of Article Three has been authorized by the Executive Committee:*

"The signatory powers shall jointly employ diplomatic and economic pressure against any one of their number that threatens war against a fellow signatory without having first submitted its dispute for international inquiry, conciliation, arbitration or judicial hearing, and awaited a conclusion, or without having

in good faith offered so to submit it. They shall follow this forthwith by the joint use of their military forces against that nation if it actually goes to war, or commits acts of hostility, against another of the signatories before any question arising shall be dealt with as provided in the foregoing."

#### CONFERENCES TO DEVELOP LAW.

*Fourth:* Conferences between the signatory powers shall be held from time to time to formulate and codify rules of international law, which, unless some signatory shall signify its dissent within a stated period, shall thereafter govern in the decisions of the Judicial Tribunal mentioned in Article One.

#### HISTORICAL LIGHT ON THE LEAGUE TO ENFORCE PEACE.

The program of the League to Enforce Peace was drawn up as a practical program. It makes its way in the minds of men and women just because it is practical and possible of realization. It is a reasonable plan, and is so recognized by innumerable American citizens and even by the governments of belligerent nations. To show that such confidence is not based upon untried theories but rests upon a large body of international experience is the purpose of this summary. What use has already been made of the several principles involved in this program? Here is the answer:

#### PART I.

##### The First Article of the League Program.

##### AN INTERNATIONAL COURT.

*All justiciable questions arising between the signatory powers, not settled by negotiation, shall, subject to the limitations of treaties, be submitted to a judicial tribunal for hearing and judgment, both upon the merits and upon any issue as to its jurisdiction of the question.*

The principle here involved has long been in operation internationally under the name of arbitration. This article contemplates its development into an international court. The extent to which nations are already committed to this practice is most encouraging.

1. The Hague Convention for the Pacific Settlement of International Disputes, signed on July 29, 1899, affirms:

"In questions of a legal nature, and especially in the interpretation or application of international conventions, arbitration is recognized by the signatory powers as the most effective, and at the same time the most equitable, means of settling disputes which diplomacy has failed to settle."

2. The provision was repeated in the revised convention of the Second Hague Conference in 1907, and has been ratified by the following powers:

#### POWERS RATIFYING ARBITRATION.

Argentine Republic, June 15, 1907	Mexico, April 17, 1901; Nov. 27, 1909
Austria-Hungary, Sept. 4, 1900; Nov. 27, 1909	Montenegro, Oct. 16, 1900
Belgium, Sept. 4, 1900; Aug. 8, 1910	Netherlands, Sept. 4, 1900; Nov. 27, 1909
Bolivia, June 15, 1907; Nov. 27, 1909	Nicaragua, June 15, 1907; Dec. 16, 1909
Brazil, June 15, 1907; Jan. 5, 1914	Norway, Sept. 4, 1900; Sept. 19, 1910
Bulgaria, Sept. 4, 1900	Panama, June 15, 1907; Sept. 11, 1911
Chile, June 15, 1907	Paraguay, June 15, 1907
China, Nov. 21, 1904; Nov. 27, 1909	Persia, Sept. 4, 1900
Colombia, June 15, 1907	Peru, June 15, 1907
Cuba, June 15, 1907; Feb. 22, 1912	Portugal, Sept. 4, 1900; April 13, 1911
Denmark, Sept. 4, 1900; Nov. 27, 1909	Rumania, Sept. 4, 1900; March 1, 1912
Dominican Republic, June 15, 1907	Russia, Sept. 4, 1900; Nov. 27, 1909
Ecuador, July 3, 1907	Salvador, June 20, 1907; Nov. 27, 1909
France, Sept. 4, 1900; Oct. 7, 1910	Servia, May 11, 1901
Germany, Sept. 4, 1900; Nov. 27, 1909	Siam, Sept. 4, 1900; March 12, 1910
Great Britain, Sept. 4, 1900; Nov. 27, 1909	Spain, Sept. 4, 1900; March 18, 1913
Greece, April 4, 1901	Sweden, Sept. 4, 1900; Nov. 27, 1909
Guatemala, June 15, 1907; March 15, 1911	Switzerland, Dec. 29, 1900; May 12, 1910
Haiti, June 15, 1907; Feb. 2, 1910	Turkey, June 12, 1907
Italy, Sept. 4, 1900	United States, Sept. 4, 1900; Nov. 27, 1909
Japan, Oct. 6, 1900; Dec. 13, 1911	Uruguay, June 17, 1907
Luxemburg, July 12, 1901; Sept. 5, 1912	Venezuela, June 15, 1907

3. Arbitration, in order to be appreciated, as a pacific force, must be considered from several points of view.

I. ARBITRATION CASES, or the trial of actual controversies submitted to tribunals chosen by the disputants;

II. ARBITRATION TREATIES, providing for this method of settling international disputes;

III. ARBITRATION COURTS, which, owing to the success of arbitrations and the negotiation of arbitration treaties, have made great headway in the past twenty years.

#### I. ARBITRATION CASES.

The settlement of disputes by arbitration has become well known since the famous Jay treaty of 1794 between the United States and Great Britain. That treaty, however, simply reintroduced the principle into practice, for arbitration had been employed extensively by the ancient world and in Europe, after the collapse of the Roman Empire. A partial list of arbitrations by periods follows:



TABLE OF ARBITRATIONS.

Ancient Greece, 425-100 B.C. ....	82 <sup>2</sup>
Medieval and Modern Europe, 800-1794, at least .....	200 <sup>3</sup>
Modern Period, 1794-1900 .....	477 <sup>4</sup>
Hague Period, 1900-date, at least .....	200 <sup>5</sup>
Total .....	959

## II. ARBITRATION TREATIES.

Definite agreements to submit to arbitration controversies that may arise have usually been negotiated between nations in pairs, or in comparatively small groups. The existing agreements of that character at the outbreak of the European war were as follows:

## ARBITRATION TREATIES IN FORCE, 1914.

Signed	Number
1825-1834 .....	2
1835-1844 .....	1
1845-1854 .....	1
1855-1864 .....	2
1865-1874 .....	11
1875-1884 .....	9
1885-1894 .....	10
1895-1904 .....	50
1905-1914 .....	128
	209

## NATIONS WITH TREATIES IN FORCE, 1914.

Argentine Republic .....	19	Japan .....	1
Austria-Hungary .....	8	Mexico .....	13
Belgium .....	14	Netherlands .....	7
Brazil .....	33	Nicaragua .....	11
Including Constitution of 1891.		Norway .....	13
Chile .....	4	Panama .....	4
China .....	2	Paraguay .....	6
Colombia .....	12	Persia .....	1
Costa Rica .....	13	Peru .....	17
Cuba .....	2	Portugal .....	18
Denmark .....	13	Including Constitution of 1911.	
Dominican Republic .....	8	Rumania .....	1
Including Constitution of 1908.		Russia .....	7
Ecuador .....	10	Salvador .....	20
France .....	16	Siam .....	5
Germany .....	1	Spain .....	31
Great Britain .....	17	Sweden .....	13
Greece .....	4	Switzerland .....	14
Guatemala .....	14	United States .....	28
Haiti .....	2	Uruguay .....	11
Honduras .....	13	Venezuela .....	8
Italy .....	25	Including Constitution of 1904.	

<sup>2</sup> The figure for ancient Greece is taken from Marcus Niebuhr Tod, "International Arbitration Amongst the Greeks."

<sup>3</sup> The figure for the period from 80 to 1794 is estimated from data, which is incomplete. The archives of Poland alone from the 13th to 16th centuries record a round hundred arbitrations.

<sup>4</sup> The figure for 1794 to 1900 is the total of W. Evans Darby's descriptive and reference list, published as an integral supplement to his "International Tribunals," and issued separately under the title of "Modern Pacific Settlements."

Of all these treaties, it is significant that only three were in force between those states which have become belligerents on opposing sides in the present war. Of the three, that between Germany and Great Britain expired by limitation on July 1, 1914, or 35 days before the contracting states were at war. The other two treaties were between Austria-Hungary and Great Britain and between Austria-Hungary and Portugal, respectively.<sup>6</sup>

There are in addition to the foregoing many treaty articles which provide for the arbitration of questions arising from the subject matter of the treaties in which they are included. Such provisions are called compromisory clauses, and at the outbreak of the war were included in 145 treaties, dealing with 74 of the subjects most frequently regulated by international agreement.<sup>7</sup>

## III. ARBITRATION COURTS.

The impulse given to methods of pacific settlement of international disputes by the convening of the Hague Conference of 1899 has resulted in the establishment, or the effort to establish, several courts. These are:

1. A PERMANENT COURT OF ARBITRATION, established at The Hague by conventions signed July 29, 1899. The court "is accessible at all times" and "competent for all arbitrations," but the actual trial court must be selected for each case from a panel in which the 44 states party to the convention have each designated four nationals. It has tried 15 cases and has three pending.

2. THE CENTRAL AMERICAN COURT OF JUSTICE, established by convention signed at Washington on December 20, 1907, and now located at San José, Costa Rica. Its function is virtually that of a supreme court for the five states of Central America, Costa Rica, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua and Salvador. Nine matters have been handled by the Court.

3. COURT OF ARBITRAL JUSTICE, provided for by the Final Act of the Second Hague Conference, signed on October 18, 1907, but not actually established. The draft convention providing for its organization was designed to create a permanent court of 15 members to supplement and improve the panel system in effect in the Permanent Court of Arbitration.

<sup>5</sup> The figure for 1900 to date is estimated from data collected by this office, which is incomplete. More than 50 arbitrations occurred in the years from 1900 to 1903.

<sup>6</sup> For details concerning treaties see "Arbitration Engagements Now Existing in Treaties, Treaty Provisions and National Constitution." (World Peace Foundation, Pamphlet Series.)

<sup>7</sup> For details concerning compromisory clauses, see Christian L. Lange, "L'Arbitrage obligatoire en 1913. Relevé des stipulations conventionnelles en vigueur en 1913 instituant le recours obligatoire à l'arbitrage international," 309-335, 343-352.

4. **INTERNATIONAL PRIZE COURT**, provided for by a convention signed at The Hague on October 18, 1907, but not actually established. Designed as a permanent court of 15 members, its jurisdiction would be relatively complete respecting appeals from decisions of national prize courts in the case of maritime warfare.

5. **FOUR INTERNATIONAL UNIONS** have agreed to settle disputes arising within their fields of activity by arbitration. They are:

a. Postal, by Art. 28 of the Universal Postal Convention, signed at Rome, May 26, 1906;

b. Railroad Freights in Europe, by Art. 57, sec. 8, of the Convention on the Transport of Merchandise by Railroads, signed at Bern, October 14, 1890;

c. Slave Trade Suppression, by Arts. 54-55 of the General Act concerning Suppression of the Slave Trade, signed at Brussels, July 2, 1890;

d. Wireless Telegraphy, by Art. 18 of the Radiotelegraphic Convention, signed at Berlin, May 26, 1906.

## PART II.

### The Second Article of the League Program.

#### A COUNCIL OF CONCILIATION.

*All other questions arising between the signatories and not settled by negotiation, shall be submitted to a council of conciliation for hearing, consideration and recommendation.*

The principle here involved has been in operation internationally under the name of the Commission of Inquiry. This article contemplates its development into an organic method. The principle itself is sound beyond question and its recognition and development within recent years aptly illustrates how rapidly a useful piece of international machinery can meet with favor.

1. The conciliatory commission had been frequently employed in European diplomacy during the 19th century and was recognized internationally as playing substantially the same part that a master plays in American judicial procedure when he is charged with hearing the testimony in a complicated case and digesting it into a report upon which a judge can decide the merits.

The Hague Convention for the Pacific Settlement of International Disputes, signed on July 29, 1899, contains the following provision:

"In differences of an international nature involving neither honor nor vital interests, and arising from a difference of opinion on points of fact, the Signatory Powers recommend that the parties, who have not been able to come to an agreement by means of diplomacy, should, as far as circumstances allow, institute an International Commission of Inquiry, to facilitate a solution of these differences by elucidating the facts by means of an impartial and conscientious investigation."

2. This article was repeated in the revised convention of the Second Hague Conference in 1907, and has been ratified by the following states:

#### POWERS RATIFYING CONCILIATION COMMISSION.

Argentina Republic, June 15, 1907	Mexico, April 17, 1901; Nov. 27, 1909
Austria-Hungary, Sept. 4, 1900; Nov. 27, 1909	Montenegro, Oct. 16, 1900
Belgium, Sept. 4, 1900; Aug. 8, 1910	Netherlands, Sept. 4, 1900; Nov. 27, 1909
Bolivia, June 15, 1907; Nov. 27, 1909	Nicaragua, June 15, 1907; Dec. 16, 1909
Brazil, June 15, 1907; Jan. 5, 1914	Norway, Sept. 4, 1900; Sept. 19, 1910
Bulgaria, Sept. 4, 1900	Panama, June 15, 1907; Sept. 11, 1911
Chile, June 15, 1907	Paraguay, June 15, 1907
China, Nov. 21, 1904; Nov. 27, 1909	Persia, Sept. 4, 1900
Colombia, June 15, 1907	Peru, June 15, 1907
Cuba, June 15, 1907; Feb. 22, 1912	Portugal, Sept. 4, 1900; April 13, 1911
Denmark, Sept. 4, 1900; Nov. 27, 1909	Rumania, Sept. 4, 1900; March 1, 1912
Dominican Republic, June 15, 1907	Russia, Sept. 4, 1900; Nov. 27, 1909
Ecuador, July 3, 1907	Salvador, June 20, 1907; Nov. 27, 1909
France, Sept. 4, 1900; Oct. 7, 1910	Servia, May 11, 1901
Germany, Sept. 4, 1900; Nov. 27, 1909	Siam, Sept. 4, 1900; March 12, 1910
Great Britain, Sept. 4, 1900; Nov. 27, 1909	Spain, Sept. 4, 1900; March 18, 1913
Greece, April 4, 1901	Sweden, Sept. 4, 1900; Nov. 27, 1909
Guatemala, June 15, 1907; March 15, 1911	Switzerland, Dec. 29, 1900; May 12, 1910
Haiti, June 15, 1907; Feb. 2, 1910	Turkey, June 12, 1907
Italy, Sept. 4, 1900	United States, Sept. 4, 1900; Nov. 27, 1909
Japan, Oct. 6, 1900; Dec. 13, 1911	Uruguay, June 17, 1907
Luxemburg, July 12, 1901; Sept. 5, 1912	Venezuela, June 15, 1907

3. The value of the conciliatory commission as a pacific force may manifest itself in three ways:

I. **CASES OF CONCILIATION**, or the actual examination and report upon an international question;

II. **TREATIES OF CONCILIATION**, or the solemn agreement to submit to a casual or standing commission differences which may arise in the future;

III. **PERMANENT COUNCILS OF CONCILIATION.**

#### I. CASES OF CONCILIATION.

The principle of the commission of inquiry was closely assimilated in its early practice with the application of arbitration. It has gradually emerged as a distinct method of pacific settlement within the last hundred years. Study of its early history is, however, scarcely begun and therefore its records cannot be considered as complete. The following figures relate to the 19th and 20th centuries:<sup>a</sup>

<sup>a</sup> The statistics here given are based upon W. Evans Darby's "International Tribunals," pages 832, 862, 906 and 911.

## TABLE OF CONCILIATIONS.

Boundaries .....	141
Questions of Fact .....	106
Under Hague Provision .....	3
Total .....	250

## II. TREATIES OF CONCILIATION.

President Taft of the United States in 1911 added a new meaning and possibility for usefulness to this principle. The Administration sought a formula that would provide for the peaceful settlement of all disputes, and found it in treaties signed with France and Great Britain on August 3, 1911. These provided, first, that all disputes of a legal character (that is, justiciable disputes) should be arbitrated, and, secondly:

"The High Contracting Parties further agree to institute as occasion arises, and as hereinafter provided, a Joint High Commission of Inquiry to which, upon the request of either party, shall be referred for impartial and conscientious investigation any controversy between the parties within the scope of Article I, before such controversy has been submitted to arbitration, and also any other controversy hereafter arising between them even if they are not agreed that it falls within the scope of Article I."

Those treaties were not brought into force, but the succeeding Wilson Administration, on the initiative of Secretary of State Bryan, proceeded to seek substantially the same end by a little different method. Leaving the existing arbitration treaties as they were, the Secretary of State sought to provide in addition for the employment of the Commission of Inquiry. The various powers were approached, and 35 of them expressed themselves as willing to negotiate treaties. At present 30 of these "Treaties for the Advancement of Peace" have been signed, and negotiations with other countries are under way. They differ slightly in their wording, but all read substantially as follows:

"The High Contracting Parties agree that all disputes between them, of every nature whatsoever, to the settlement of which previous arbitration treaties or agreements do not apply in their terms or are not applied in fact, shall, when diplomatic methods of adjustment have failed, be referred for investigation and report to a permanent International Commission, to be constituted in the manner prescribed in the next succeeding article; and they agree not to declare war or begin hostilities during such investigation and before the report is submitted."

The United States is obligated to follow this procedure with practically all the rest of the world.

Twenty treaties of this type are at present in force with the following states:

## AMERICAN CONCILIATION TREATIES, IN FORCE.

(Dates are those of the exchange of ratifications, from which the treaties remain in force for five years.)

Bolivia, January 8, 1915	Honduras, July 27, 1916
Brazil, October 28, 1916	Italy, March 19, 1915
Chile, January 19, 1916	Norway, October 21, 1914
China, October 22, 1915	Paraguay, March 9, 1915
Costa Rica, Nov. 12, 1914	Peru, March 4, 1915
Denmark, January 19, 1915	Portugal, October 24, 1914
Ecuador, January 22, 1916	Russia, March 22, 1915
France, January 22, 1915	Spain, December 21, 1914
Great Britain, Nov. 10, 1914	Sweden, January 11, 1915
Guatemala, October 13, 1914	Uruguay, February 24, 1915

Ten treaties have been signed and await formal ratifications before coming into force. Treaties of the United States in this condition have been signed with the following:

## AMERICAN CONCILIATION TREATIES, SIGNED.

(Dates indicate when each treaty was signed.)

Argentine Republic, July 24, 1914	Panama, September 20, 1913
Dominican Republic, February 17, 1914	Persia, February 4, 1914
Greece, October 13, 1914	Salvador, August 7, 1913
Netherlands, December 18, 1913	Switzerland, February 13, 1914
Nicaragua, December 17, 1913	Venezuela, March 21, 1914

The principle has been adopted in South America. The Argentine Republic, Brazil and Chile have negotiated a tripartite treaty which also awaits the completion of ratifications.

Returning to the United States, the American Government has received acceptances in principle of the proposal to negotiate treaties like those in force from the following states:

## POWERS ACCEPTING TREATY PRINCIPLE.

Austria-Hungary	Germany
Belgium	Haiti
Cuba	

The United States made the proposal concerning such treaties to all countries maintaining diplomatic relations with the Washington government. The rest of the world has accepted the principle to the extent indicated by the Hague Convention which is quoted above, while the principle itself has been substantially provided for in many other treaties. This is particularly true of Latin America, where conciliation has been extensively employed.

## III. PERMANENT COUNCIL THE NEXT STEP.

It is evident that the American treaties have already organized the principle of the Commission of Inquiry into a method of pacific settlement. Moreover, those treaties, by their success and the evident welcome they have received among the states of the world, make possible a still further advance. The League to Enforce Peace aims to make this next step a council of conciliation which shall be a permanent international body. This might mean a panel of commissioners appointed by each state, from which disputants might select a commission for a given case. Or a still more developed form might mean a smaller permanent council, selected in a manner acceptable to

the contracting states and convening whenever a problem was submitted to it. Either development would leave to contracting states the option of establishing commissions by pairs of states, according to the American system of treaties.

### PART III.

#### The Third Article of the League Program.

##### SANCTIONS.

*The signatory powers shall jointly use forthwith both their economic and military forces against any one of their number that goes to war, or commits acts of hostility, against another of the signatories before any question arising shall be submitted as provided in the foregoing.*

The following interpretation of Article Three has been authorized by the Executive Committee.

"The signatory powers shall jointly employ diplomatic and economic pressure against any one of their number that threatens war against a fellow signatory without having first submitted its dispute for international inquiry, conciliation, arbitration or judicial hearing, and awaited a conclusion, or without having in good faith offered so to submit it. They shall follow this forthwith by the joint use of their military forces against that nation if it actually goes to war, or commits acts of hostility, against another of the signatories before any question arising shall be dealt with as provided in the foregoing."

The principle here involved is the sanction of the proposed treaty. A sanction is the justified employment of forceful methods to insure the observance of law or to enforce it when an effort to disregard it is made. It has been the general experience of mankind that sanctions are placed behind public organs of order as soon as confidence in their usefulness is established. This article makes that provision respecting methods of arbitration and conciliation.

"It may be of interest to recall the way in which the medieval custom of private war was abolished in England. It was not done at one step, but gradually, by preventing men from avenging their own wrongs before going to court. The trial by battle long remained a recognized part of judicial procedure, but only after the case had been presented to the court, and only in accordance with judicial forms. This had the effect of making the practice far less common, and of limiting it to the principals in the quarrel instead of involving a general breach of the peace in which their retainers and friends took part. Civilization was still too crude to give up private war, but the arm of the law and the force in the hands of the crown were strong enough to delay a personal conflict until the case had been presented to court. Without such a force the result could not have been attained.

"In every civilized country the public force is employed to prevent any man, however just his claim, from vindicating his own right with his own hand instead of going to law; and every citizen is bound, when needed, to assist in preventing him, because that is the only way to restrain private war, and the maintenance of order is of paramount importance for

every one. Surely the family of nations has a like interest in restraining war between states."<sup>9</sup>

The sanctions contemplated are two in number:

I. ECONOMIC, or the restriction of the material resources of the offender by embargo, non-intercourse or boycott.

II. MILITARY, or the employment of armies and navies.

#### I. ECONOMIC SANCTIONS.

The value of this method is based upon the conviction that modern civilization renders the world so interdependent that a boycott would be a dreaded weapon and would operate with certainty. This method is particularly attractive to those who recoil from the human wastage of warlike measures, but its own ultimate result would be the starvation of a whole nation, not simply the destruction of its military forces as fighting units. The threat of such measures is sometimes effective. Nations have in the past taken such measures against others on their own account under the name of reprisal, embargo and non-intercourse.<sup>10</sup> The following list shows instances of such action:

1. Embargoes were used as a means of redress by the United States in 1794 (80 days), 1797, 1807, (27 months), 1808 and 1812 (2 years).

2. Commercial intercourse with France was suspended by an act of Congress of June 18, 1798, and other acts of similar character followed.

3. Commercial intercourse with Great Britain was suspended by an act of Congress of March 1, 1809. The act was revived on February 2, 1811.

4. Commercial intercourse with Dominican ports was suspended by act of Congress of February 28, 1806.

5. The United States Congress in 1887, by way of reprisal, passed an act empowering the President to deny Canadian vessels entrance to American waters and to deny entry to Canadian products, if American fishing rights should be denied or abridged in Canadian waters.

6. Non-intercourse in connection with hostilities is customary, and is frequently rendered effective by means of a military blockade which, in order to be binding, must be effective.

<sup>9</sup> A. Lawrence Lowell, "A League to Enforce Peace," 7, 9. (World Peace Foundation, Pamphlet Series, Vol. V, No. 5, Part I.)

<sup>10</sup> The enforcement of such measures is recognized in international law as the first or preliminary step toward war under the title of "nonamicable means of redress." When carried to the point of effective coercion, which necessitates the use of military forces, the economic boycott combines both the economic and military features, the effects of which are most terribly felt by women, children and all other non-combatants. Belligerents, therefore, regard this combination as more inhuman than military coercion alone, and its employment, even in connection with military operations, has recently led the sufferer to justify himself in waging a military warfare unrestrained by humane considerations.

## II. MILITARY SANCTION.

The principle here involved is the use of force, restricted to the punishment of the state that offends by breaking the agreement to resort to the court or council of conciliation before beginning hostilities.

The value of this sanction lies in its effectiveness, which is primarily due to the universal understanding of its consequences. In a legal sense, the use of force is not necessarily war, but properly a non-amicable means of redress. To employ force without actually going to war is eminently desirable in cases where gentler methods have failed to yield results. In case of extreme necessity, the states in the league would stand ready to use the entire power of their armies and navies to insure observance of the agreement.

During the last century the need for employing force in the interest of public order and without the "inconveniences and main obligations which war brings" has been many times encountered. The best example is the use of what has been known as pacific blockade. Usually the employment of such devices has been difficult because nations unconcerned with the disputes were under no obligation to assent to restrictions.

The League to Enforce Peace proposes to correct this defect by providing in advance for joint action. Among the instances of joint action for desirable purposes the following may be cited:

1. France, Great Britain and Russia combined under the treaty of London, July 29, 1827, to end hostilities between Greece and Turkey. The result was the battle of Navarino in October, in which the Turkish navy was destroyed. Greek independence was confirmed by the action.

2. Austria-Hungary, Germany, Great Britain, Italy and Russia in 1886 blockaded the ports of Greece to bring about disarmament of Greek troops on the Turkish frontier.

3. In 1888-89 Germany, Great Britain, France, Italy, Portugal, the Kongo Free State and the Netherlands joined in measures to prevent the exportation of slaves from Zanzibar.

4. In 1897 Austria-Hungary, France, Germany, Great Britain and Russia, as signatories to the treaty of Berlin of 1878, blockaded the island of Crete, an instance of the joint use of military and economic force.

5. In 1902 Germany, Great Britain and Italy established a blockade of Venezuela to enforce satisfaction of various claims against that country originating in damages sustained during revolutionary conditions. Various other powers also had claims, and it was urged diplomatically that the blockading powers were entitled to preferential treatment by reason of their blockade. The three powers accordingly sued Venezuela and eight other claimant powers before the Hague Permanent Court of Arbitration, which held that they were entitled to preferential treatment.

6. In 1900 the Chinese Boxers started an anti-foreign movement which resulted in a siege of the legations at Peking and the killing of several Europeans. The powers rushed troops to China and the forces of several nations marched to Peking, relieved the legations and assumed charge of the legation quarter. As a result, Germany, Austria-Hungary, Belgium, the United States, France, Great Britain, Italy, Japan, the Netherlands and Russia effected a settlement with China under which indemnities were to be paid.

## PART IV.

## The Fourth Article of the League Program.

## CONFERENCES TO DEVELOP LAW.

*Conferences between the signatory powers shall be held from time to time to formulate and codify rules of international law, which, unless some signatory shall signify its dissent within a stated period, shall thereafter govern in the decisions of the judicial tribunal mentioned in Article One.*

1. The conferences contemplated by this article are diplomatic conferences which should develop the statute law of the world.

They are of two types: Those dealing with public international law; and those dealing with international administration.

Conferences dealing with public international law may be illustrated by the Hague Conferences and the series of Pan American Conferences; those dealing with international administration may be illustrated by the Universal Postal Congresses. The former by codifying and rephrasing the good practice of nations actually contribute to the growth of international law; the latter determine rules which simplify relations and render them more convenient.

Besides diplomatic conferences, there have been a great many international meetings of private individuals on behalf of interests of an international character.

2. The effect of such conferences is manifested in two ways:

I. INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCES, or meetings of the representatives of more than one country. These have been both official and unofficial. Unofficial conferences have contributed to the development of official conferences.

II. INTERNATIONAL OFFICIAL ORGANIZATIONS, which consist of permanent establishments or régimes set up jointly by governments for the execution or protection of common interests.

## I. INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCES.

International practice before the war was thoroughly committed to the principle of conferences. There then existed nearly 500 organizations of an international or even world-wide character, of which 450 were unofficial. They dealt with practically every phase of human activity and had a membership of several millions. They held periodic meetings to forward their particular activity or interest. The growth of such meetings can be seen from the following table, the statistics including both unofficial and official gatherings:

## MEETINGS OF INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS.

1840-1844	2
1845-1849	7
1850-1854	8
1855-1859	12
1860-1864	26
1865-1869	51

1870-1874 .....	54
1875-1879 .....	114
1880-1884 .....	111
1885-1889 .....	200
1890-1894 .....	224
1895-1899 .....	286
1900-1904 .....	480
1905-1909 .....	582
1910-1914 .....	494
	<hr/>
	2651

Obviously the habit of meeting to discuss and determine problems of common human concern or of more than national interest was well-developed before the war. That government themselves had acquired the habit is therefore not a matter for surprise. While private organizations often met merely for discussion, governments came together in conference only when a specific subject was ripe for joint action. Bearing in mind that such official organizations are only one-tenth as many as private organizations, it is notable that official meetings have been comparatively more numerous than the unofficial. The following list shows governmental conference activity:

#### MEETINGS OF OFFICIAL ORGANIZATIONS.

1850-1854 .....	1
1855-1859 .....	1
1860-1864 .....	7
1865-1869 .....	6
1870-1874 .....	12
1875-1879 .....	17
1880-1884 .....	15
1885-1889 .....	24
1890-1894 .....	20
1895-1899 .....	15
1900-1904 .....	28
1905-1909 .....	49
1910-1914 .....	38
	<hr/>
	238

#### II. INTERNATIONAL OFFICIAL ORGANIZATIONS.

Experience has shown that the codification of national law brings the necessity for administrative organization. This is equally true of international law, for much that is desirable to make life livable falls within the field of administering concrete improvements, and more depends upon the application of the abstract principle than upon its formulation. To illustrate: Both the Constitution of the United States and the statutes of Congress are national law, but the Constitution formulates the abstract principles, while the statutes apply them to meet the needs of the people, and provide many organizations of government for this purpose. It has been well said, "that which is best administered is best." At all events, administrative organizations are indispensable to the application of international principles; and they increase in number.

The imposing list of international organizations

which follows shows how largely the ideal of co-operation among nations has already been realized, and proves that there already exists an atmosphere congenial to the further development of the program of the League to Enforce Peace.

#### INTERNATIONAL ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATIONS.

1. Régime of free navigation on international rivers, 1815.
2. International Sanitary Union, with permanent bureau, 1851. For additional protection against the spread of epidemics the following organizations have been established:
  - a. International Sanitary Council of Tangier, Morocco, 1818.
  - b. Superior Sanitary Council of Constantinople, 1894.
  - c. Maritime and Quarantine Sanitary Council, Egypt, 1892.
  - d. International Office of Public Hygiene, 1907.
3. Régime of free navigation on the Danube, 1856.
4. Universal Postal Union, with permanent bureau, 1863.
5. Improvement of the lot of sick and wounded in armies in the field (Red Cross Convention), 1864.
6. International Association for the Measurement of the Earth, with permanent bureau, 1864.
7. Universal Telegraphic Union, with permanent bureau, 1865.
8. Latin Monetary Union, 1865.
9. Maintenance of Lighthouse at Cape Spartel, Morocco, 1865.
10. Scandinavian Monetary Union, 1875.
11. International Bureau of Weights and Measures, 1875.
12. International Conference against Phylloxera (plant lice), 1878.
13. Transportation of Merchandise by Railroads in Europe, with permanent bureau, 1878.
14. Publication of Customs Tariffs, with permanent bureau, 1880.
15. Protection of Industrial Property, with permanent bureau, 1880.
16. Protection of Literary and Artistic Property, with permanent bureau, 1880.
17. Protection of Submarine Cables, 1882.
18. Regulation of Fisheries Police in the North Sea, 1882.
19. Technical Unification of European Railroads, 1882.
20. International Conference for the Choice of a Prime Meridian, 1884.
21. Exchange of Reproductions of Works of Art, 1885.
22. Exchange of Official Documents, Scientific and Literary Publications, with numerous bureaus of exchange, 1886.
23. Régime of the Suez Maritime Canal, 1888.
24. International Maritime Conferences, 1889.
25. Pan American Union, 1889.
26. Legal Protection of Workers, 1890.
27. Repression of the African Slave Trade, with permanent bureau, 1890.
28. Unification of Private International Law, 1893.
29. Gauging of Non-Seagoing Vessels, 1898.
30. Regulation of the Importation of Spirituous Liquors into Certain Regions of Africa, 1899.
31. Permanent Court of Arbitration, with permanent bureau, 1899.
32. Permanent International Council for the Exploration of the Sea, with permanent central bureau and international laboratory, 1899.
33. Conservation of Wild Animals in Africa, 1900.
34. Revision of the Nomenclature of Causes of Death, 1900.
35. Protection of Insectivorous Birds Useful to Agriculture, 1902.



36. International Sugar Union, with permanent bureau, 1902.
37. Pan American Sanitary Convention, with permanent bureau, 1902.
38. Unification of the Formulas of Potent Drugs, 1902.
39. International Association of Seismology, with permanent bureau, 1903.
40. Repression of the Trade in White Women, 1904.
41. Unification of Maritime Law, 1905.
42. International Institute of Agriculture, with permanent bureau, 1905.
43. Wireless Telegraphic Union, with permanent bureau, 1906.
44. Central American Court of Justice, International Bureau and Conferences, 1907.
45. International Committee for Making a Map of the World, 1909.
46. Regulation of the Arms Trade in Africa, 1909.
47. Repression of the Use of Opium, 1909.
48. Regulation of the Use of Saccharine, 1909.
49. Repression of the Circulation of Obscene Publications, 1910.
50. Unification of Commercial Statistics, 1910.
51. South American Postal Union, 1911.
52. Protection of Seals and Maritime Otters, 1911.
53. International Regulation of Standard Time, 1912.

#### THE VERDICT OF STATESMEN.

WOODROW WILSON.

*President of the United States.*

"Only when the great nations of the world have reached some sort of agreement as to what they hold to be fundamental to their common interest, and as to some feasible method of acting in concert when any nation or group of nations seeks to disturb those fundamental things can we feel that civilization is at last in a way of justifying its existence and claiming to be finally established. . . . I am sure that I speak the mind and wish of America when I say that the United States is willing to become a partner in any feasible association of nations formed in order to realize these objects and make them secure against violation."

WILLIAM H. TAFT.

*Former President of the United States; President of the League to Enforce Peace.*

"Even if the risk of war to the United States would be greater by entering the League than by staying out of it, does not the United States have a duty as a member of the family of nations to do its part and run its necessary risk to make less probable the coming of such another war and such another disaster to the American race? We are the richest nation in the world and in the sense of what we could do were we to make reasonable preparation, we are the most powerful nation in the world. We have been showered with good fortune. Our people have enjoyed a happiness known to no other people. Does not this impose upon us a sacred duty to join the other nations of the world in a fraternal spirit and with a willingness to make sacrifice if we can promote the general welfare of men?"

VISCOUNT GREY OF FALLODON.

*Lately Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs of Great Britain.*

"The best work neutrals can do for the moment is to try to prevent a war like this from happening again. . . . Only we must bear this in mind: If the nations after the war are able to do something effective by binding themselves with the common object of preserving peace, they must be prepared to undertake no more than they are able to uphold by force and to see, when the time of crisis comes, that it is upheld by force. The question we must ask them is: 'Will you play up when the time comes?' It is not merely the sign manual of Presidents and sovereigns that is really to make that worth while; it must also have behind it Parliaments and national sentiments."

ARISTIDE BRIAND.

*Premier and Minister for Foreign Affairs of France.*

"The union of all the living forces of the country is an essential condition to success. It is that which will lead us to our goal—peace by victory—a solid, lasting peace guaranteed against any return of violence by appropriate international measures."

THEOBALD VON BETHMANN HOLLWEG.

*Chancellor of the German Empire; President of the Ministry of State and Minister for Foreign Affairs of the Kingdom of Prussia.*

"If, after the end of the war, the world will only become fully conscious of the horrifying destruction of life and property, then through the whole of humanity there will ring out a cry for peaceful arrangements and understandings which, as far as is within human power, will avoid the return of such a monstrous catastrophe. This cry will be so powerful and so justified that it must lead to some result. Germany will honestly co-operate in examination of every endeavor to find a practical solution, and will collaborate for its possible realization."

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"Many difficulties will in practice confront a League of Peace. We shall find them only too real and only too formidable. It requires for its realization conditions which exact from European statesmanship a high and difficult level of wisdom. . . . The promised adhesion of America provides, not merely for an impartial and uncommitted element in its councils, but also for a powerful external sanction for the observance of its constitution and the fulfillment of treaties. The simple, almost mechanical test that it furnishes for the judgment of 'aggression' promises for the first time in history to arm the moral conscience of civilized opinion in the service of peace."—H. N. Brailsford, in April "Atlantic."

# The Outline Map—How to Use It

BY WARREN L. WALLACE, LEWIS AND CLARK HIGH SCHOOL, SPOKANE, WASH.

The question of outline maps and their use is not a new one. For years we have been endeavoring to make them serve a purpose. But how best to get the true value from them becomes a problem solved only by experiment. The purpose of this brief article is to set forth some of the various methods and devices resorted to by the writer to realize the benefits of the aid—for no aid appears to be of any value unless to the user it serves as a plan for achievement.

We may presume that the map in itself is to serve a double purpose. In the first place, it is to aid in acquiring information by furnishing a definite task for the student to perform, and in the second place, it is to aid the student in gaining a vision of the "field of action."

But how shall these aids be used to best gain the desired results?

Some time ago it was our practice to assign to each student a certain number of outline maps which were filled out and handed in at appropriate periods, *e. g.*, a map was used in connection with the settlement of New England. On this map each student was required to locate places of settlements, fix the limits of grants, etc., while the study of the class was centered about the colonization of New England. In like manner, outlines were used in connection with the southern colonies, with the French and Spanish claims in North America, with the Revolutionary War, and other similar topics.

To the plan mentioned above there appeared so many objections that it has been generally discarded in the upper classes, at least. The chief objections rested on the fact that such work was practically a waste, both of time and material. It was a waste of time because, after the student had completed his maps, he was inclined to be as inaccurate in his information as he would have been had he done no more than to glance at a wall-map. It may have been that the work was neatly done, but that was no guarantee that the student had evinced more than deftness in the art of transcribing what was closed to his consciousness. Under such conditions the material used had served no purpose and had, therefore, been wasted. So generally did this prevail that the system was discarded.

To supplant it one was adopted which discarded the outlines entirely. The new plan necessitated the expenditure of much more time on the part of the teacher than the old one did; but it was hoped that the results would be more satisfactory. The plan, in brief, was to require each individual to describe the geographical and territorial arrangements at stated times or periods. This was to be done by each student separately during hours before and after the sessions of the day. In theory, the plan is an excellent one, but, in practice, is a miserable failure if the

teacher has to deal with a hundred and fifty students. With a small number it would be excellent, I believe. The large numbers made the task an impossible one, because the time involved was great.

The effort to break away from the outline map failed. A speedy return was made. Also the return was made with a conviction that the outline map is an indispensable aid in history work. This, by the way, is not a condemnation of an occasional map made in its entirety by the pupil.

The return has not been made to the original use of the map. Now the plan is to announce to the class the different dates at which the United States is to be represented. Some of the dates are 1820, 1850 and 1857. It is expected that the student shall post himself quite carefully as to the facts pertaining to the boundaries at these particular dates, that he is able to indicate how much of the country had been organized as states at each time, how much remained territory and what the legislation pertaining to slavery extension had been relative to each part of the country.

This and other desired information is indicated to the student in advance so that he may know for what to look. Being informed of the task, it remains for the teacher at any hour and without warning to pass to the class maps on which the student will represent the United States at the time designated and will place on the map such information as may be desired. It is to be understood that the material to be shown has been indicated earlier in the course but when and just what would be called for are left to the teacher to decide.

At present, the plan, as formulated, contemplates considering the work as part of the test work of the course. Just how much value shall be attached to each map-test rests with the individual teacher to decide—but it is an excellent plan to make the work count as much as possible.

The arguments in favor of this plan are many. The map, in this case, cannot be a mere task of transferring data from one map to another with scarcely an evidence of consciousness on the part of the worker. The unexpected occurrence of these map-tests causes a certain amount of long-standing preparation and causes the map work to become a matter of some serious concern. Moreover, this calls for constant review in that a map, having been once filled in, is not thereby exempted from a later assignment. Not all of the dates may be covered by the map-tests, but the uncertainty as to which may be used causes the desired end to be realized.

These experiments have been conducted particularly with students of American history. It may be that the maturity of the students and the familiarity with the outlines of our own country make this an

easy task. The writer has not made an experiment with maps showing industrial and economic data, facts of population, or matters pertaining to foreign countries. It is difficult to believe that the same process cannot be resorted to in the case of some maps

of Greece, Rome, England and even Europe. The last mentioned offer the greatest difficulty but even in this case it appears possible to adopt the plan. Certainly the other countries mentioned offer various opportunities to use the method.

## Use of Magazines in History Teaching

BY PROFESSOR D. SHAW DUNCAN, UNIVERSITY OF DENVER, COL.

President Wilson some time ago said: "There is only one rule in the world, and it applies to all professions, and that is that you are expected to make good." This rule applies to us, as teachers, in a very definite way. Every institution and its value are determined by the product. To give as a reason, why the product is not good and up to standard, that we do not have the proper equipment, or time, or students to work on, will not be considered by the ordinary citizen and business man. While on the other hand, if the product is up to standard and of good quality, the ordinary citizen and business man will take it for granted that the institution is performing the function for which it was created, and is adapted for such a thing. As teachers we have to contend against these faulty generalizations, and do all we can, in spite of limitations, to present a good product. The ordinary business man when he considers the product of the school applies in many cases the tests he applies to the manufacture of inanimate objects, forgetting that we have to do with life and personality and souls. We are engaged in the manufacture of souls, not machines, and how to succeed in this and not be overwhelmed by the detail of the business, is our big problem. How to develop personality and build souls demands the undivided attention of all of us, and a product of this character is not machine-made.

In the teaching of history, and this applies to other subjects as well, one of our greatest difficulties is to make the student see and feel a vital connection between the subject in hand and life. To many the study of history seems a waste of time, because it deals with facts and institutions about which the pupil is not in any way interested, because it seems to him to deal with a period of history quite remote from the present. To be able to handle this intelligently is a great achievement. The study of ancient history is insisted upon in many quarters, but the older I get, the less enthusiastic I am for it, unless it is presented in such a way that the student sees a vital connection between the aspirations and struggles of these ancient peoples and those of to-day. I am convinced that the study of these ancient peoples can be made very profitable, by comparison with present conditions, and that, so far as the development of the pupil is concerned, it will amount to nothing, if it is studied as a period, disjointed and separated from the present. Professor Hulme in his study on *The Renaissance and the Reformation*, in his chapter on *The Revival of the Individual*, points out very

clearly that individuality came back through taste, and curiosity; that curiosity forced men to travel; that travel became a passion coupled with a desire for knowledge. We have these to-day present in the pupil—desire for individuality, curiosity, and desire for knowledge—to a greater or less extent, and it is our business to do all we can to respect individuality, arouse curiosity, stimulate the desire for knowledge, and enliven the imagination. Our great way of approach is through the door of interest. How can we arouse the pupil's interest? The experience of all of us is conclusive I am sure, that the study of every subject is not of equal interest to all, and that what might be a lesson of great interest to us would not appeal to the pupil. This being the case, we must study to appeal to the individual interest. It is at this point that the use of magazines in the study of history has its value. It arouses the interest of the student to a remarkable degree. He is studying things of present day value; he is in touch with life; he is talking the same thing the man on the street is talking; he can talk intelligently with his parents on the vital subjects of the day; he is a citizen of the world. History takes on a new aspect. He learns in a concrete way, how history is made. He finds out that what men are struggling for now, has been the subject of contention for ages. Without trying, he connects himself voluntarily with the past. His whole horizon is broadened, and he becomes the child of the ages. To me, it offers a fine opportunity to help the pupil adjust himself to life. His whole school life is an attempt to adjust, and I am not sure that we do it successfully. His kindergarten life requires great adjustment; then comes the break when he enters the grade. The life in the high school is almost a complete break with the previous life, and passing from high school to college is entering a new world. If the pupil passes directly from high school into the activities of life he feels that he is breaking with his past. Now this ought not to be, and we ought to so help him, that he can adjust his school life to the life of the world. This is what the use of magazines in teaching history tends to do. It tends to correlate his education with life.

There are many different ways in which this work can be done, and I do not think any one plan will fit all cases, but the individual teacher can arrange it to suit conditions. I favor a discussion of present day problems once a week, that is, I would devote one study period to this phase of the work. The great problem is what to take for consideration and what

to eliminate. There are several good weekly magazines which can be used to advantage, and special rates are given to teachers and pupils. Several of them provide history lesson plans, which may be used as guides. A good way is for the teacher to go over the material in advance, and indicate two or three days before the time for considering the material, the articles which will be studied, and discussed. At the recitation period it is well to pick a pupil to state the gist of the article, and then throw it open for discussion, taking care that not too much time is spent on any one article, unless it is of prime importance. Another good way, and this tends to develop responsibility, is to pick a committee from the class and have it go over the magazine and choose the articles for consideration. When it is ready to report the teacher should go over the articles with the committee and learn why such and such articles were chosen. This gives an opportunity to see the workings of individuality. After this is done, the class should be informed of the articles to be studied.

I am well aware that the use of magazines means more work for the teacher. It means greater preparation over a wide field of subjects. There will be many questions arise during the discussion which could not have been anticipated in the study room, and happy that teacher who will be able to answer or direct the inquiring mind, in the right direction. At the same time, it gives the teacher a fine opportunity to direct the reading of the student, stimulate his imagination, and make, what had been drudgery, play. The teacher can bring out in concrete fashion the facts of every-day life, and point out the forces which control public opinion, national and state politics, and national policy. The present political canvass gives the teacher an opportunity to make concrete the whole subject of national nominations and elections. And the present European war offers many lessons which can be enforced with vigor by an enterprising and wide-awake teacher. I am enthusiastic for the use of magazines, for I believe it gives us an opportunity as history teachers, to "make good" in the real sense.<sup>1</sup>

"The Unpopular Review" for April-June contains two severe strictures on Germany. Under the title, "The Last Barbarian Invasion?" we are informed that the mad passion for war has destroyed Germany's reasoning powers; and that the only safety for other nations lies in rendering her incapable of farther harm. The second article is entitled, "The Legend of German Efficiency," and points out how "Everywhere, at home, in the colonies, in foreign propaganda, the modern German spirit has proved its crass inability to deal with the human factor. Its 'efficiency' has there broken down—and this is a world not of formulæ and machines, but of living men."

<sup>1</sup> Paper read before the Colorado State Teachers' Association, November 2, 1916.

## Periodical Literature

(Continued from page 149)

The March "Nineteenth Century" publishes three articles on "The Empire—The Organization of the Empire; a Suggestion," by the Rt. Hon. Herbert Samuel, M. P.; "An Imperial Trade Policy," by W. Basil Worsfold; "The Empire and the New Protection," by Henry Wilson Fox, M. P., which are well worth reading. "Austria's Doom," by Lady Paget, in the same issue, predicts the absorption of Austria by the kingdom of Prussia.

Arthur Bullard, author of "The Diplomacy of the Great War," writes on "Democracy and Diplomacy" in the April "Atlantic," and analyzes the secret methods used by President Wilson as rather disadvantageous to the growth of the true spirit of democracy since, by keeping the citizens in the dark, no administration can follow, or even know, the will of the people. The war articles in the same magazine, "At the Enemy's Mercy," by Lieut. F. S.; "A Cinema of the C. R. B.," by Charlotte Kellogg; "The Singing Soldier," by Lewis R. Freeman, and "A Criticism of the Allied Strategy," by H. Sidebotham, are all unusually interesting.

"The Romanic Review" (January-March, 1916) publishes "Some Sixteenth Century Schoolmasters at Grenoble and Delectable Vicissitudes," by Dr. Caroline Ruuntz-Rees, principal of Rosemary Hall. This is another of Dr. Ruuntz-Rees' delightful studies of Southern France, and considers the work of such men as Antoine de Montlevin, Guillaume Drom, Hubert Susannée, Adam Prinnet, and Maitre Aquens.

Isaac Don Levine writes on "The Russian Revolution" in the April "Review of Reviews," tracing the movement from March 9 to its culmination. The account is simple and direct, and is written with little party bias. The author calls attention to the fact that the solution of the task confronting the new government is largely facilitated by the Zemstvos, social organizations with local committees in every corner of Russia.

"If Germany Should Win, the Effect Upon the United States if the Submarine Campaign against England Should Succeed," by Edward G. Lowry (April "World's Work"). By calling attention to the conditions existing after February 24, the author urges the conquest of the British fleet would mean a financial panic such as the world has never seen, and which would destroy all the fabric of international commerce.

The April "North American" publishes Gerald Morgan's "The New Russia," an attempt to correct the misapprehensions held of Russia by the average American, and, indeed, by all English-speaking peoples. The same magazine publishes J. Holland Rose's splendid contrast of Bismarck and Bethmann-Hollweg.

"A Naval Expert" discusses in the April "Century" the question, "Can we defend the Panama Canal in a Crisis?" and reaches the conclusion that a land railroad connection between the United States and Panama would be necessary adequately to provide for the safety of the Canal. Such a road could be connected with existing Mexican railroads at an expense equal to that of only three or four modern dreadnoughts.

# History in Summer Schools, 1917

## UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA.

Berkeley, Cal.

Professor Frank H. Hodder, University of Kansas; Professor Herbert E. Bolton, Curator of Bancroft Library; Professor Edgar Dawson, Hunter College of the City of New York; Professor Edward Elliott; Assistant Professor Richard F. Scholz; Assistant Professor William A. Morris.

The History of the Mediterranean World. From about 1200 B. C. to Augustus. Assistant Professor Scholz.

England Under the Tudors and the Stuarts. Assistant Professor Morris.

The Teaching of History in Secondary Schools. Assistant Professor Morris.

Recent Progress in Ancient History. Assistant Professor Scholz.

The American Revolution. Professor Hodder.

The Prelude to the Civil War. Professor Hodder.

The Opening of the West. Professor Bolton.

Seminar in Western History. Professor Bolton.

International Law. Professor Elliott.

The Government of Cities. Professor Dawson.

Six Problems of Self-Government. Professor Dawson.

## UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO.

Chicago, Ill.

Professor Thompson; Professor Lingelbach, of the University of Pennsylvania; Professor Terry; Professor Lichtenstein; Professor McLaughlin; Associate Professor Shepardson; Assistant Professor Walker; Assistant Professor Huth; Doctor Scott; Mr. Joranson; Mr. Kull; Associate Professor Jernegan.

European History: The Medieval Period, 376-1300. Assistant Professor Walker and Mr. Joranson.

European History: The Later Medieval and Early Modern Period, 1300-1715. Assistant Professor Walker and Mr. Joranson.

European History: The Later Modern Period, 1715-1900. Mr. Kull.

History of Antiquity. IV. The Civilization of the Mediterranean World from Alexander to Caesar. Assistant Professor Huth.

The End of the Roman Republic. Assistant Professor Huth.

The Feudal Age, 814-1250. Professor Thompson.

The French Revolution and Napoleon. Professor Lingelbach.

Europe in the Nineteenth Century. Professor Lingelbach.

The Expansion of Europe in the Nineteenth Century. Dr. Scott.

Recent Problems of European History. Dr. Scott.

Imperial England. Professor Terry.

History of the United States: The Early Period, 1607-1783. Associate Professor Shepardson.

History of South America. Professor Lichtenstein.

Survey of Medieval, Economic and Social History. Professor Thompson.

The English Constitutional Monarchy and the Rise of the Democracy. Professor Terry.

The Constitutional History of the United States, 1760-1789. Professor McLaughlin.

The History of the United States, 1869-1877. Associate Professor Shepardson.

United States History: The New West, 1763-1830. Associate Professor Jernegan.

Problems in the Social and Industrial History of the United States (1750-1830). Associate Professor Jernegan.

The Theory and Principles of Federal Organization in America. Professor McLaughlin.

## UNIVERSITY OF COLORADO.

Boulder, Col., June 25 to August 4, 1917.

Professor James F. Willard; Professor Lewis E. Meador, Drury College; Associate Professor Thomas M. Marshall, University of Idaho; Assistant Professor Carl C. Eckhardt; Assistant Professor Arnold J. Lien; Associate Professor Cephas D. Allin, University of Minnesota; Dr. Donald McFayden.

Athenian Democracy. Dr. McFayden.

Roman Empire. Dr. McFayden.

History of Modern Europe, 1300-1789. Assistant Professor Eckhardt.

French Revolution. Assistant Professor Eckhardt.

Teachers' Course in History. Assistant Professor Eckhardt.

Medieval English Institutions. Professor Willard.

Italian Renaissance. Professor Willard.

History of the Colonization of North America through 1763. Associate Professor Marshall.

General Survey of the Westward Movement. Associate Professor Marshall.

Diplomacy Connected with the Acquisition of Western Territory, 1803-1848. Associate Professor Marshall.

International Law. Associate Professor Allin.

American Diplomacy. Associate Professor Allin.

General Principles of Political Science. Assistant Professor Lien.

American Government (College Civics). Professor Meador.

Studies in Contemporary Democracy. Assistant Professor Lien.

## COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY.

New York, N. Y., July 9 to August 17, 1917.

Professor Benjamin Burks Kendrick; Professor Robert W. Rogers, Drew Theological Seminary; Professor Harry A. Sill, Cornell University; Professor Frederick J. F. Jackson, Union Theological Seminary; Professor James F. Baldwin, Vassar College; Professor Max Pearson Cushing, Reed College; Professor David Saville Muzzey; Professor Nelson P. Mead, College of the City of New York; Professor Isaac J. Cox, University of Cincinnati; Professor Frederic A. Ogg, University of Wisconsin; Professor Henry Johnson; Dr. William T. Morgan; Dr. J. Salwyn Schapiro, College of the City of New York; Dr. Birl E. Shultz, New York City Bureau of Municipal Research; Mr. Wallace E. Caldwell, High School of Commerce; Mr. Henry F. Munro; Mr. Joseph B. Lockey; Mr. Dixon R. Fox.

American History. Mr. Caldwell.

Ancient History. Mr. Caldwell.

The Foundations of Modern Europe. Professor Kendrick and Dr. Morgan.

Modern and Contemporary European History. Dr. Fox and Dr. Morgan.

A Survey of American History to 1789. Mr. Fox.

The Ancient Orient. Professor Rogers.

Greek History to the End of the Peloponnesian War. Professor Sill.

Roman History to the End of the Republic. Professor Sill.

The Hebrews. Professor Rogers.

Introduction to Church History in the First Six Centuries. Professor Jackson.

The Historical Background of New Testament Times. Professor Jackson.

The Middle Ages. Professor Baldwin.

History of the Intellectual Class in Western Europe up to the Modern Scientific Movement. Professor Cushing.

The Protestant Revolt and the Wars of Religion (1517-1648). Professor Ogg.

The Development of Modern France. Professor Muzzey.

The Philosophic Movement in France in the Eighteenth Century. Professor Cushing.

European History, 1815-1870. Dr. Schapiro.  
 The Constitutional History of England to the Seventeenth Century. Professor Baldwin.  
 The American Colonies to 1763. Professor Mead.  
 The United States, 1815-1850. Professor Muzzey.  
 The United States, 1876-1914. Professor Kendrick.  
 The History of Latin America. Professor Cox.  
 The Expansion of Europe to the Close of the Eighteenth Century. Professor Ogg.  
 Nationalism and Democracy in Europe Since 1870. Professor Schapiro.  
 Seminar in American History; Territorial and Diplomatic Problems. Professor Cox.  
 History of American Diplomacy. Mr. Munro.  
 International Law. Mr. Munro.  
 International Relations. Pan-American Relations from 1810 to 1864. Mr. Lockey.  
 Contemporary Pan-American Relations. Mr. Lockey.  
 The Teaching of History. Professor Johnson.  
 Illustrative Lessons in Contemporary American History. Professor Johnson.  
 Materials for the Study of City Government and How to Use Them. Dr. Shultz.

#### CORNELL UNIVERSITY.

Ithaca, N. Y.

Professor Bretz; Professor Olmstead, University of Missouri; Professor Lunt; Dr. Cunningham, of California; Dr. James Sullivan, State Historian of New York.  
 American Government and Politics. Professor Bretz.  
 American History. The Expansion of the United States Across the Alleghany Mountains, 1750-1848. Professor Bretz.  
 Greek and Roman History. Professor Olmstead.  
 The Near Eastern Question. Professor Olmstead.  
 English History to 1485. Professor Lunt.  
 English History Since 1815. Professor Lunt.  
 Seminary in English History. Professor Lunt.  
 Latin America; Social, Political and Economic. Dr. Cunningham.  
 Methods of Teaching History and Civics in the High School. Dr. Sullivan.  
 Studies in Local History. Dr. Sullivan.

#### DARTMOUTH COLLEGE.

Hanover, N. H.

Professor Henry W. Lawrence, Jr., Middlebury, Vt.; Professor William S. Ferguson, Harvard University; Professor Charles R. Lingley.  
 History of Europe from the Renaissance to the French Revolution, 1300 to 1789. Professor Lawrence.  
 History of the United States, 1815 to 1850. Professor Lingley.  
 History of the United States, 1876 to 1916. Professor Lingley.  
 Social History of England in the Nineteenth Century. Professor Lawrence.  
 The Teaching of History in Secondary Schools. Professor Ferguson.

#### GEORGE PEABODY COLLEGE FOR TEACHERS.

Nashville, Tenn., June 14 to August 31, 1917.

Professor W. K. Boyd, Trinity College; Professor George Petrie, Alabama Polytechnic Institute; Professor Alfred I. Roehm, State Normal School, Oshkosh, Wis.; Associate Professor David Y. Thomas, University of Arkansas; Assistant Professor Guy E. Snider, College of the City of New York; Assistant Professor Gus W. Dyer, Vanderbilt University.  
 Review Course in American History. Mr. Petrie.  
 American Colonial History to the End of the Revolution. Mr. Thomas.  
 American History, 1781 to 1865. Mr. Petrie.  
 American History, 1865 to the Present Time. Mr. Thomas.  
 People and Industries of South America. Mr. Snider.

Government and Politics in the United States. Mr. Dyer.  
 Greek History. Mr. Thomas.  
 Roman History. Mr. Thomas.  
 Medieval History. Mr. Thomas.  
 Modern European History. Mr. Thomas.  
 English History. Mr. Boyd.  
 Southern History. Colonial and Revolutionary. Mr. Boyd.  
 Southern History, 1783 to 1860. Mr. Boyd.  
 Selected Topics in American History. Mr. Boyd.  
 History of the German People and German Kultur. Mr. Roehm.

#### HARVARD UNIVERSITY.

Cambridge, Mass., July 2 to August 11, 1917.

Professor Charles H. Haskins; Professor Edwin F. Gay; Professor William MacDonald, Brown University; Professor Archibald C. Coolidge; Professor George G. Wilson; Mr. Harold J. Laski.  
 European History. Medieval and Modern. Professors Haskins and Gay.  
 History of England. Mr. Laski.  
 American Politics in the Nineteenth Century. Professor MacDonald.  
 The Development of American Nationality, 1760-1917. Professor MacDonald.  
 Historical Bibliography and Criticism. Professor Haskins.  
 Factors and Problems in International Politics. Professors Coolidge and Wilson.

#### INDIANA UNIVERSITY.

Bloomington, Ind.

Professor James A. Woodburn; Professor S. B. Harding; Assistant Professor Albert L. Kohlmeier; Mr. Sherwood.  
 Medieval and Modern History. Mr. Kohlmeier.  
 American History: From 1492 to the Close of the War of 1812. Mr. Woodburn.  
 English History: The Age of the Stuarts, 1603-1714. Mr. Harding.  
 History of Modern Europe: The Revolutionary and Napoleonic Era, 1750-1815. Mr. Kohlmeier.  
 Historical Method. Mr. Harding.  
 Origin and Growth of the American Constitution, 1781-1801. Mr. Woodburn.  
 American Diplomatic History: 1876-1914. Mr. Kohlmeier.  
 Seminary in English History. Research. Mr. Harding.  
 Seminary in American History. Research. Mr. Woodburn.  
 American History: Introductory Course. From 1815-1915. Mr. Sherwood.

#### IOWA STATE COLLEGE.

Ames, Iowa, June 11 to July 21, 1917.

Professor L. B. Schmidt.  
 Economic History of American Agriculture.  
 American Government and Politics.  
 Seminar in the Economic History of Agriculture in Iowa.

#### JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY.

Baltimore, Md., June 26 to August 7, 1917.

Professor E. J. Benton, Western Reserve University; Associate Professor H. V. Canter, University of Illinois; Dr. John Mez.  
 American History, 1763-1795. Professor Benton.  
 American History Since 1783. Professor Benton.  
 European History from Charlemagne to the Eighteenth Century. Professor Benton.  
 Roman History. Associate Professor Canter.  
 International Relations. Dr. Mez.  
 Introduction to the Study of World Politics. Dr. Mez.



**UNIVERSITY OF KANSAS.**

Lawrence, Kan., June 7 to August 15, 1917.

Assistant Professor Schurz, University of Michigan; Associate Professor Crawford; Assistant Professor Moore; Assistant Professor Melvin; Dr. Goodwin, High School, Oakland, Cal.

Later England: The political, economic and social history of England since 1485. Associate Professor Crawford.

Later English Institutions, treating of Tudor absolutism, the Reformation, the struggle between the Crown and Parliament, with special emphasis upon the nineteenth century, Associate Professor Crawford.

History of Latin America dealing with the history of Spanish and Portuguese America from the conquest to the present time. Assistant Professor Schurz.

Diplomatic Relations between the United States and Latin America. Assistant Professor Schurz.

American Government. A study of the development and actual working of American government, national and state. Assistant Professor Moore.

International Law. A survey of the principles of public international law. Assistant Professor Moore.

The Age of Depots, 1589-1789. Assistant Professor Melvin.

Napoleonic Europe, 1795-1815. Assistant Professor Melvin.

Development of the Pacific Slope. Dr. Goodwin.

History in the High School. Dr. Goodwin.

**KANSAS STATE AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE.**

Manhattan, Kansas.

Professor Ralph R. Price; Associate Professor I. Victor Iles; Assistant Professor Elden V. James; Miss Jessie A. Reynolds.

Beginnings of the American Nation (to 1815). Professor Price.

Westward Expansion (1815 to 1865). Professor Price.

American Government. Associate Professor Iles.

Teachers' Course in History. Associate Professor Iles.

English History. Assistant Professor James.

Civics. Assistant Professor James.

The Orient and Greece. Miss Reynolds.

The Modern World. Miss Reynolds.

**LOUISIANA STATE UNIVERSITY.**

Baton Rouge, La., June 7 to August 8, 1917.

Professor Milledge L. Bonham; Miss Margaret H. Schoenbrodt.

History of England. Miss Schoenbrodt.

Modern European History. Miss Schoenbrodt.

History of Louisiana. Professor Bonham.

Latin America. Professor Bonham.

Europe Since 1870. Professor Bonham.

**UNIVERSITY OF MAINE.**

Orono, Maine, June 25 to August 3, 1917.

Professor Colvin.

United States History. A general survey from 1877.

European History.

Graduate Course.

**UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN.**

Ann Arbor, Mich.

Professor Herbert Wing, Jr.; Professor Edward Raymond Turner; Professor Ephraim Douglass Adams, Leland Stanford, Jr., University; Assistant Professor Paul Van Brunt Jones, University of Illinois; Dr. Irving Day Scott.

Roman History. Professor Wing.

The History of the Levant from 521 B. C. to 387 B. C. Professor Wing.

Continental Europe in the Middle Ages. Assistant Professor Jones.

The Renaissance. Assistant Professor Jones.

A Survey of Modern European History. Dr. Scott.

The History of France from 1815 to the Present Time. Dr. Scott.

The History of Europe Since 1870. Professor Turner.

Seminary in Recent English and European History. Professor Turner.

History of the United States, 1815-1865. Professor Adams. Seminary in English-American Diplomatic Relations During the Civil War. Professor Adams.

**UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA.**

Minneapolis, Minn.

Professor Guernsey Jones; Professor Jeremiah S. Young; Associate Professor William Watson Davis; Assistant Professor August C. Krey; Instructor William Anderson.

Modern Europe. Europe from the End of the Thirty Years' War to the Present. Mr. Krey.

Modern England from the Seventeenth to the Nineteenth Century. Mr. Jones.

History of the United States from 1789-1876. Mr. Davis.

Teachers' Course in History and Government. Mr. Krey.

Contemporary History of the United States, 1876-1912. Mr. Davis.

Industrial and Social History of Modern England. Mr. Jones.

Selected Topics in American History. Mr. Davis.

Selected Problems in English History. Mr. Jones.

American Government. Mr. Young.

American Municipal Administration. Mr. Anderson.

Comparative Government. A study of the government and politics of the leading countries in modern Europe. Mr. Anderson.

Business Law. Mr. Young.

**UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI.**

Columbia, Mo.

Mr. Wrench; Mr. Kerner; Mr. Trenholme; Mr. Viles; Mr. Stephens; Mr. Shepard; Mr. Journey.

Medieval History. Mr. Wrench.

Modern History. Mr. Kerner.

Ancient History. Mr. Wrench.

English History and Government. Mr. Trenholme.

American History. Mr. Viles and Mr. Stephens.

Recent European History. Mr. Kerner.

The Renaissance. Mr. Wrench.

The French Revolution. Mr. Kerner.

Modern England and the British Empire. Mr. Trenholme.

American Social History. Mr. Stephens.

History of Missouri. Mr. Viles.

Seminary in Historical Research and Thesis Work.

American Federal Government. Mr. Shepard and Mr. Journey.

Contemporary International Politics. Mr. Shepard.

Municipal Government. Mr. Journey.

International Law. Mr. Shepard.

Seminary. Mr. Shepard.

**NEW YORK UNIVERSITY.**

New York, N. Y., July 2 to August 10, 1917.

Professor Heckel, Dean of Lafayette College; Assistant Professor Jones; Professor Sihler; Dr. McNair; Jamaica Training School for Teachers; Professor Kohl; Dr. Crecraft; Mr. Munro, Columbia University.

American Political and Constitutional History. Professor Heckel.

Contemporary American History. Professor Heckel.

History of Europe Since 1870. Assistant Professor Jones.

Modern European History. Assistant Professor Jones.

Economic History of England. Assistant Professor Jones.

Roman History. Professor Sihler.

Methods of Teaching Elementary History. Dr. McNair.

Principles of Secondary Education. Professor Kohl.

American Government. Dr. Crecraft.

Political Parties in the United States. Dr. Crecraft.

Current International Problems of the United States. Dr. Crecraft.

Municipal Government and Current Problems. Dr. Crecraft.

American Diplomacy. Mr. Munro.

#### OBERLIN COLLEGE.

Oberlin, Ohio.

Professor Louis E. Lord; Professor Lyman B. Hall; Professor David R. Moore; Professor Harley L. Lutz; Assistant Professor Harold L. King.

Ancient Government. Professor Louis E. Lord.

American History, 1789-1913. Professor Lyman B. Hall.

England Under the Tudors. Professor Lyman B. Hall.

Europe Since 1870. Professor David R. Moore.

South America. Professor David R. Moore.

International Relations. Assistant Professor Harold L. King.

American Government. Professor Harley L. Lutz.

#### UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA.

Philadelphia, Pa.

Professor George M. Dutcher, Wesleyan University; Professor Frederic L. Paxson, University of Wisconsin; Professor James C. Ballagh; Professor E. M. Patterson; Dr. J. J. Van Nostrand; Mr. Edwin W. Adams, of the Philadelphia Public Schools.

Greek History from 431 to 338 B. C. Dr. Van Nostrand.

The British Empire of the Eighteenth and Nineteenth Century. Dr. Van Nostrand.

Europe Since 1814. Professor Dutcher.

The Era of the French Revolution and Napoleon. Professor Dutcher.

Recent History of the United States from 1877 to 1915. Professor Paxson.

History of the West from 1837 to 1873. Professor Paxson.

Current International Relations and Problems. Professor Ballagh.

Latin-American Relations and Caribbean Interests of the United States. Professor Ballagh.

Current Economic Adjustment. Professor Patterson.

Industrial Environment. Professor Patterson.

Economic Problems of the Community. Professor Patterson.

Civics. Especially adapted to the needs of Elementary School teachers, with demonstration as to methods of presenting the subject in the various grades. Mr. Adams.

#### PENNSYLVANIA STATE COLLEGE.

State College, Pa., June 25 to August 3, 1917.

President Sparks; Professor Zook; Dr. Martin.

History of England from 1689 to the Present. Professor Zook.

Civil Government in the United States. Dr. Martin.

History of Pennsylvania. Dr. Martin.

Economic History of the United States. Dr. Martin.

Teachers' Course. President Sparks or assistant.

Europe Since 1815. Professor Zook.

General European History. Dr. Martin or assistant.

European International Relations. Professor Zook.

American Foreign Relations. Professor Zook.

#### RUTGERS COLLEGE.

New Brunswick, N. J.

Professor Logan; Professor Greenfield; Dr. Knowlton, Central High School, Newark, N. J.

General History. History of Greece and Rome. Dr. Knowlton.

General History, dealing with the Feudal System, Culture of Middle Ages, Renaissance and Reform, Era of Revolutions, Main Points in the Progress of the Nineteenth Century. Dr. Knowlton.

Advanced European History. Professor Logan.

United States History. Professor Logan.

Advanced United States History. Course A. Professor Logan.

Advanced United States History. Course B. Professor Greenfield.

Advanced American History. Professor Greenfield.

Methods of Teaching History in the High School. Dr. Knowlton.

Civics. Course A. General outline of the whole subject. Dr. Knowlton and Professor Greenfield.

Civics. Course B. Similar to A, but consists of a more detailed study of certain topics. Professor Greenfield.

International Relations. Professor Logan.

#### UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS.

Austin, Texas, June 13 to July 26, 1917.

Professor Walter L. Fleming, Louisiana State University; Professor Robert P. Brooks, University of Georgia; Professor Eugene C. Barker; Assistant Professor Chauncey S. Boucher, Washington University; Adjunct Professor Thad W. Riker; Adjunct Professor William R. Manning; Dr. Milton R. Gutsch.

The Early Middle Ages, 385-814. Dr. Gutsch.

The Feudal Age, 814-1300. Dr. Gutsch.

The Transition from the Middle Ages to Modern Europe. Adjunct Professor Riker.

The Old Regime and the French Revolution. Adjunct Professor Riker.

Europe Since the French Revolution. Adjunct Professor Riker.

History of England Since 1763. Adjunct Professor Manning.

The American Colonies and the Revolution, 1492-1783. Assistant Professor Boucher.

Division and Reunion, 1860-1914. Professor Fleming.

Origin and Development of the Latin American Countries. Adjunct Professor Manning.

The American Revolution, 1750-1783. Assistant Professor Boucher.

Geographic Influences in History. Professor Fleming.

England from the Elizabethan Age to the Peace of Paris, 1763. Professor Brooks.

National Development and Expansion, 1783-1860. Professor Barker.

The formation of the Constitution. Professor Barker.

History of the South. Professor Brooks.

#### UNIVERSITY OF UTAH.

Salt Lake City, Utah, June 12 to July 21, 1917.

Professor Fellows; Professor Young; Professor Marshall.

Modern History, 1600-1800. Professor Fellows.

Medieval History. Professor Fellows.

Nineteenth and Twentieth Century. Professor Fellows.

Western History. Professor Young.

American Archaeology. Professor Young.

Political Science (American Civil Government). Professor Young.

American History, 1750-1789. Professor Marshall.

#### UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA.

University, Va.

Ancient History.

The Modern Age, Course 1, to 1789.

The Modern Age, Course 2, from 1789 to 1916.

English History.

United States History and Civics.

Civil Government in the United States.

Virginia History.

Review of United States History.

Review of English History.

Principles of International Law.

The Pacific Settlement of International Disputes.

**UNIVERSITY OF WASHINGTON.**  
Seattle, Wash., June 16 to July 27, 1917.

Professor Edmond S. Meany; Professor Oliver H. Richardson; Mr. Samuel E. Fleming, Franklin High School, Seattle.

England Under the Tudors and Stuarts. Professor Richardson.

The Foundation and Growth of the Great Powers of Northern Europe in the Seventeenth and Eighteenth Centuries. Professor Richardson.

American History; Early National Periods, 1789-1829. Mr. Fleming.

The Crisis of Slavery and the Civil War, 1849-1865. Mr. Fleming.

Open Lectures in History: 1. Fremont the Pathfinder. 2. Breaking the Hudson's Bay Company Monopoly on Puget Sound. 3. Treaty of 1846. 4. Mexican War, 1846-1848. 5. Discovery of Gold in California. 6. Clayton-Bulwer Treaty, 1850. 7. Compromise of 1850. 8. Oregon Donation Land Law, 1850-1854. 9. Founding of Seattle, November 13, 1853. 10. Creation of Washington Territory, 1853. 11. Opening of Japan, 1853-1854. 12. Indian Treaties and Wars in Washington. Professor Meany.

**WEST VIRGINIA UNIVERSITY.**  
Morgantown, W. Va.

Professor J. M. Callahan; Mr. Charles H. Ambler, Randolph-Macon College.

American International Relations: Latin American and Caribbean Interests and Policies. Professor Callahan.

International Law and Practice of Diplomacy. Professor Callahan.

Modern European History. Mr. Ambler.

United States History and Civics for Teachers. Mr. Ambler.

American Social and Economic History. Mr. Ambler.

**UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.**  
Madison, Wis., June 25 to August 3, 1917.

Mr. Boak, Mr. Sellery, Mr. Way, Mr. Root, Mr. Fish, Mr. Coffin, Mr. Chase.

History of Greece to the Roman Conquest. Mr. Boak.

Medieval History (395-1095). Mr. Sellery.

United States, 1830 to Present. Mr. Way.

History of the Roman Empire from Augustus to Justinian. Mr. Boak.

Medieval Civilization. Mr. Sellery.

American Constitutional History. Mr. Root.

Representative Men. Mr. Fish.

Revolutionary and Napoleonic Epoch, 1789 to 1815. Mr. Coffin.

History of Europe, 1815 to 1915. Mr. Coffin.

Teaching of History. Mr. Chase.

Supplementary Reading for Teachers of History. Mr. Chase.

Seminary in Colonial History. Mr. Root.

Seminary in American History. Mr. Fish.

Announcement has been made that the George Peabody College for Teachers in Nashville, Tenn., has received a gift of \$180,000 for a library building from the Carnegie Corporation of New York. The trustees of the library provided for a permanent annual expenditure upon the library of \$10,000. The Pedagogical Library collected by the old Peabody Normal School and by the University of Nashville was for many years the largest and best teachers' library upon the American continent. It now contains 50,000 unusually rare books.

## Reports from The Historical Field

An elaborate description of Governor William Henry Harrison's conference with Tecumseh is given by Mr. Elmore Barce in the "Indiana Magazine of History" for March, 1917 (Vol. 13, No. 1). The same number contains articles upon the wilderness road and the national road, as well as other papers relating to Indiana history.

An illustrated pamphlet entitled, "Exploration of the West," showing pictures in colors by O. E. Berninghaus, has been issued by the Anheuser-Busch Company of St. Louis.

The March number of the "Mississippi Valley Historical Review" contains the following articles: "Southern Railroads and Western Trade, 1840-1850," by R. S. Cotterill; "The Separation of Nebraska and Kansas from the Indian Territory," by Roy Gittinger; "The Indian Policy of Spain in the Southwest, 1783-1795," by Jane N. Berry, and "Recent Historical Activities in the South and Trans-Mississippi Southwest," by Donald L. McMurtry. Under "Notes and Documents" is given an account of the first council of the American city of Baton Rouge and an account of the state of affairs at St. Vincent in 1786.

"The A. L. Series of Historical Pictures," dealing with thirty incidents in English history, are now available in America through the firm of Denoyer-Geppert Co., 460 East Ohio Street, Chicago. This handsomely colored series of pictures, size 36 by 40 inches, furnishes excellent material for wall decorations in history class rooms. The complete set furnishes an interesting series of views of customs, life, and modes of warfare throughout English history.

Messrs. York & Son, of London, have added many new lantern slides to their list on "The Great War." The slides are sold separately and also in five lectures, "Why and How the War Began," "The Work of Aircraft in the Great War," "The Work of the Navy in the Great War," "The Work of the Land Forces in the Great War During the First Twelve Months," "The Work of the Allies During the Second Twelve Months of the Great War." The same firm has also issued over seventy lantern slide maps showing different phases of the war.

### UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA CONFERENCE.

During Schoolmen's Week, April 12-14, at the University of Pennsylvania, conferences were held of high school teachers in several subjects. The conference on history was presided over by Prof. Arthur C. Howland. The subject for discussion was "Recent Tendencies and Problems in History Teaching." Papers were read by Mr. Jacob W. Fisher, of the Ambler, Pa., High School; Miss Mary E. Doherty, of the William Penn High School, Philadelphia, and Prof. Herman V. Ames, of the University of Pennsylvania. At the conference on social studies, Dr. J. Lynn Barnard, of the Philadelphia School of Pedagogy, presided. The topic, "Social Science in the Fourth Year of the High School," was discussed at length by Dr. Arthur Dunn, of the United States Bureau of Education, and by Dr. S. B. Howe, of the South Side High School, Newark, N. J. Other participants in the discussion were Miss Mary W. Stewart, of the William Penn High School, Philadelphia; Mr. S. Howard Patterson and Mr. H. W. Hoagland, of the West Philadelphia High School, and Prof. E. M. Patterson, of the University of Pennsylvania.

## NEW ENGLAND ASSOCIATION.

The annual spring meeting of the New England History Teachers' Association was held on Saturday, April 28, at Simmons College, Boston. A short business meeting was held, at which committee reports were made. The general topic for discussion was "Modern English History and Government." Papers were read by Prof. W. C. Abbott, of Yale University, and the Hon. S. K. Ratcliffe, editor of the "London Sociological Review." The officers of the association for 1917 are as follows: President, Margaret McGill, Newton Classical High School; vice-president, Harry M. Varrell, Simmons College; secretary-treasurer, Horace Kidger, Newton Technical High School; additional members of council, George M. Dutcher, Wesleyan University; Orrin C. Hormell, Bowdoin College; Blanche Leavitt, Rogers High School, Newport; Harriet E. Tuell, Somerville High School.

## MISSISSIPPI VALLEY ASSOCIATION.

The tenth annual meeting of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association was held at the rooms of the Chicago Historical Society on Thursday, Friday and Saturday, April 26-28. The following program was provided: Thursday, April 26, 2.30 p. m., "The Value of the Memoir of George Rogers Clark as an Historical Document," by Prof. James A. James, Northwestern University; "The Coming of the Circuit Rider Across the Mountains," by Mr. W. W. Sweet, DePauw University; "Glimpses of Some Old Mississippi River Posts," by Louis Pelzer, Iowa University; "The Military-Indian Frontier, 1830-1835," by Miss Ruth Gallaher, Graduate Student, Iowa University. Thursday evening, April 26, 8.00 p. m., president's address; "The Rise of Sports, 1876-1893," Frederic L. Paxson, University of Wisconsin; reception tendered to the members of the association by the Chicago Historical Society. Friday, April 27, 10.00 a. m., "Fur Trading Companies in the Northwest, 1763-1816," by W. R. Stevens, Minnesota University; "The Collapse of the Confederacy: An Analysis of Certain Internal Causes," by Lawrence H. Gipson, Wabash College; "The Pioneer Aristocracy," by Logan Esarey, Indiana University; "Some Possibilities of Historical Field Work," by Franklin F. Holbrook, Minnesota Historical Society; luncheon to the association tendered by the Chicago Historical Society; paper, "Latin-American History as a Field of Study for Mississippi Valley Students," by Paul F. Peck, Grinnell College; business meeting. Friday, April 27, 3.00 p. m., session on historical pageantry, "Pageantry Possibilities," by Bernard Sobel, Purdue University; "Possibilities in State Historical Celebrations," by Harlow Lindley, Earlham College; "Nauvoo, a Possible Study in Economic Determinism," by Theodore C. Pease, University of Illinois; exhibit of the "Indiana" pageantry, through courtesy of Mr. Robert C. Lieber, Indianapolis, Ind., at the Selig Polyscope Company Theatre, 58 East Washington Street, northeast corner of Washington Street and Wabash Avenue, through the courtesy of Mr. Selig.

Friday, April 27, 8.30 p. m., "The Influence of the West on the Rise and Decline of Political Parties," by Homer C. Hockett, University of Ohio; "A Plan for the Union of the United States and British North America, 1866," by Theodore C. Blegen, Riverside High School, Milwaukee, Wis.; "President Lincoln and the Illinois Radical Republicans," by Arthur C. Cole, University of Illinois; "The Formation of the American Colonization Society," by Henry Noble

Sherwood, State Normal School, La Crosse, Wis. Saturday, April 28, 10.00 a. m., teachers' section program, arranged by Dr. A. O. Thomas, of Lincoln, Nebraska, past State Superintendent of Public Instruction; joint meeting with history teachers of Cook County; "The Principles of Progress Within the Subject Applied to High School History," by R. M. Tryon, University of Chicago; "Standardizing High School History," by Jonas Viles, University of Missouri; "Some Readjustments in the History Program," by O. H. Williams, University of Indiana; discussion. Saturday afternoon, April 28, an automobile tour of visiting members and their ladies through the Park Boulevard system of Chicago.

## MIDDLE STATES ASSOCIATION.

The annual meeting of the History Teachers' Association of the Middle States and Maryland will be held in Philadelphia, May 4 and 5. The following program has been arranged:

FRIDAY EVENING, MAY 4, AT 6.30 O'CLOCK.

The Aldine Hotel, Chestnut above Nineteenth Street.  
Subscription dinner.

FRIDAY EVENING, MAY 4, AT 8 O'CLOCK.

Ball Room, the Aldine Hotel, Chestnut above Nineteenth Street.

Subject, How far should the teaching of history and civics be used as a means of encouraging patriotism?

Speakers, Dr. Herman V. Ames, Dean of the Graduate School, University of Pennsylvania; Dr. William Starr Myers, Professor of History and Politics, Princeton University.

Discussion, Mr. Avery W. Skinner, Specialist in History, New York State Department of Education; Miss Louise H. Haeseler, Head of the History Department, High School for Girls, Philadelphia; Dr. W. H. Ottman, William Penn Charter School, Philadelphia.

Annual business meeting.

SATURDAY MORNING, MAY 5, AT 10 O'CLOCK.

High School Building, Girard College, Girard and Corinthian Avenues.

Subject, Should the curriculum in history for vocational students differ from that for academic students? If so, how?

Speakers, Mr. R. S. Beatman, Head of the History Department, Julia Richman High School, New York City; Dr. J. Montgomery Gambrill, Teachers' College, Columbia University, New York; Dr. Guy Edward Snider, College of the City of New York.

Discussion, Mrs. Mary E. Eastwood, Teacher of Salesmanship, William Penn High School, Philadelphia; Mr. Herbert J. Tily, Manager Strawbridge & Clothier, Philadelphia; Dr. Alfred C. Bryan, Head of the History Department, High School of Commerce, New York City.

SATURDAY NOON.

Luncheon tendered to speakers and members of the Association by Girard College.

SATURDAY AFTERNOON.

After the luncheon the guests will be invited to take a tour of the grounds and buildings.

## BOOK REVIEWS

EDITED BY PROFESSOR WAYLAND J. CHASE,  
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

**BARKER, J. ELLIS.** *The Foundations of Germany. A Documentary Account Revealing the Causes of Her Strength, Wealth and Efficiency.* New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., 1916. Pp. 280. \$2.50, net.

This book is not a new edition of the same author's well-known book on "Modern Germany," but rather complementary to it. Most of the chapters have already appeared in "The Nineteenth Century and After," "The Fortnightly Review," and "The Contemporary Review." The author is a remarkably well-informed Anglicized German, an ardent admirer of German system and efficiency, but very hostile to German foreign policies of recent years. His great thesis expounded in this book is that the institutions of Prussia and the habits of the Prussian people of to-day were built up in the eighteenth century under the guidance of King Frederick William and of Frederick the Great. Hence to understand Prussianized Germany to-day one must study the history of eighteenth century Prussia.

Mr. Barker devotes his first and longest chapter to showing how the great rulers of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries in Prussia built up their State. He summarizes thus: "Individually the Germans are very ordinary men. Collectively they have been amazingly successful because the whole power of the nation is organized, and can be employed against other nations in peace and war by an absolute sovereign. The secret of Germany's strength, wealth and efficiency may be summed up in a single word, Discipline."

Then Mr. Barker goes on to show how German diplomacy of recent years is closely modelled on that of Frederic the Great. He asserts that even the reasons advanced by the German government to justify the German invasion of Belgium in 1914 are not original. They are surprisingly like those Frederick the Great used to justify his invasion of Saxony in 1756. In his third chapter entitled, "The Policy of Bismarck and of William II," the author shows that the present Emperor has violated the principles of diplomacy and statecraft by which Bismarck united Germany.

These first three chapters comprise over half the book. The rest are shorter and less unified, though some of them follow out the main thesis. Several of them deal directly or indirectly with the causes of the war. Chapters 9-13 are documents in the original French to illustrate and prove statements made in the first two chapters. The book is readable and well worth the attention of Americans who wish their country to take an efficient part in the world war. For most high school pupils the books may be a little difficult in style and language, though the more mature may well use it to advantage.

CLARENCE PERKINS.

Ohio State University.

**ANDREWS, MATTHEW PAGE.** *Brief History of the United States.* Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1916. Pp. xlii, 368. \$1.00.

This book is intended for secondary schools, and is written by a teacher of history whose class-room experience has evidently helped him in both the selection of material and the presentation of it. The work is scholarly and excellent in its perspective and proportion. The style is clear, free from technical expressions, and interesting. Suggestions for additional reading are given in footnotes in connection

with the text. The illustrations are carefully selected. A valuable appendix and a good index help to make the book thoroughly serviceable. It is well adapted to the needs of the students for whom it is written. SARAH A. DYNES.

State Normal School, Trenton, N. J.

**WOODBURN, JAMES ALBERT, AND MORAN, THOMAS FRANCIS.** *Introduction to American History.* New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1916. Pp. iv, 308. 72 cents.

The purpose of this book is to supply the European background for the study of American history in the grades. It carries out the suggestions of the "Committee of Eight," and is attractive in appearance and style. The first seventeen chapters show the contributions of the ancient world to the "new world." The period of discovery and exploration down to the settlement of Jamestown is covered in the last nine chapters. The treatment is in the main chronological. The book contains illustrations, good maps, and ten pages of suggestions to teachers. The book is well adapted to the needs of children in the sixth grade.

SARAH A. DYNES.

State Normal School, Trenton, N. J.

**TEDDER, ARTHUR W.** *The Navy of the Restoration from the Death of Cromwell to the Treaty of Breda: Its Work, Growth and Influence.* New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1916. Pp. ix, 234. \$2.25.

The decade following the death of Oliver Cromwell is a period of moment in English history; for within it lies not only the readjustment of internal balances consequent upon the restoration of the kingship, but also the rise of England to an assured position as an imperial power. It is the period when English commerce reached out with renewed activity to the wide fields of overseas trade, when new colonies and trading companies were organized, and when a colonial-commercial policy was given definition and wide scope.

It is in this period that the place and importance of the navy as an integral part and necessary instrument in a career of expansion were appreciated. This trim little book covers the history of the navy during these decisive years of external growth. The essay covers not merely the navy as an actual fighting machine, but also the relation of this branch of national service to domestic politics. In two capable chapters there is an account of the navy as it was before the Restoration and the compelling part it took in the restoration of the Stuarts. Then follows an excellent chapter on the subject of naval administration, the spirit and position of the navy, its personnel, its serious defects in organization and equipment, and the attempts to remedy them, and the evil influence of the court and domestic politics upon naval efficiency. In actual sea service the account includes the operations of the navy in the Mediterranean and during the second Dutch War. The avowed exclusion of the expeditions to the West is due to limitations of time and space.

The spirit and method of the author are admirable, upholding the best standards of sound historical scholarship. Not the least excellent part of the volume is the bibliography which is consciously made an important part of the book and sufficiently comprehensive to serve as a guide to scholars in this field. The bibliography is also indicative of the solid foundation of Mr. Tedder's work. He has gone as far as possible to original sources, and with clarity and judgment he has picked out the essential points and woven them into a sound and readable presentation.

Even the "difficulties attending the correction of proofs under active service conditions" have revealed no glaring errors or omissions, and we earnestly hope that he may return to "happier circumstances" to carry on the work which he has so ably begun. WINFRED T. ROOT.

The University of Wisconsin.

HOLCOMBE, ARTHUR N. *State Government in the United States*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1916. Pp. xii, 498. \$2.25.

The tendency of modern political thought in the United States is apparent in Prof. Holcombe's work which takes the extreme nationalistic view of the constitution, both historically and in its modern interpretation. The "book is designed to furnish a critical analysis of the principles of State government in the United States." The author discusses in part one the relations of the State and national government, the distribution of powers, and the location of sovereignty. In part two he treats of the origin and development of the State government, the original principles and forms of that government, and their evolution to those of the present. In part three is presented State government as it exists to-day in all its phases, with practical illustrations drawn from the experiences of the several States. In part four he examines the several proposed plans for State reform and the outlook for further improvement. Many interesting tendencies are shown; the great growth in the power of the executives; the peoples' growing distrust of their legislatures; the development of government by commission; and the constitutional convention as a uni-cameral legislative body. A valuable bibliography, classified by subject and accompanied by critical notes, is appended.

The style is cumbersome, and there are many ambiguous sentences which are due in many cases to the absence of punctuation. Too many technical expressions are assumed to be understood by the reader, as in the case of "preferential voting," which is referred to several times without being anywhere defined.

This book appears to be too difficult for the immature mind of the average high school student, a statement especially applicable to the first part which is largely given to a discussion of political theory. The part of the book devoted to the working of State government is easier to read, and would be comprehended by more advanced pupils. As a reference work for this class of students it could be used with profit. W. H. HATHAWAY.

Riverside High School, Milwaukee.

#### BOOKS ON HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT PUBLISHED IN THE UNITED STATES FOR FEBRUARY 24 TO MARCH 31, 1917.

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH.D.

##### American History.

Brooks, Robert P. *Conscription in the Confederate States of America, 1862-1865*. Athens, Ga.: Univ. of Ga. 420-442 pp.

Knight, Lucian Lamar. *A standard history of Georgia and Georgians*. 6 vols. N. Y. & Chicago: Lewis Pub. Co. \$30.00.

Lindley, Harlow. *Indiana as seen by early travelers [prior to 1830]*. Indianapolis: Indiana Hist. Comm. 596 pp. \$1.50.

Lounsberry, Clement A. *North Dakota history and people*. 3 vols. Chicago: S. J. Clarke Pub. Co. \$30.00.

Martzoff, Clement L. *Fifty stories from Ohio history*. Columbus, O.: Ohio Teachers Pub. Co. 254 pp. \$1.00.

Miles, William. *Journal of the sufferings and hardships of Capt. Parker H. French's overland expedition to California [1850]*. N. Y.: Cadmus Book Shop. 26 pp. \$2.50, net.

Miller, Edmund T. *A financial history of Texas*. Austin, Tex.: Univ. of Texas. 444 pp. (4 pp. bibls.).

Minnesota Infantry, 1st reg., 1861-1864. *History of the First Regiment, Minn. Vol. Inf., 1861-1864*. Stillwater, Minn.: Easton and Masterman. 308 pp. \$2.00, net.

Nadal, Ehrman S. *A Virginia village [reminiscences of Lincoln, Stanton, Lowell, etc.]*. N. Y.: Macmillan. 277 pp. \$1.75, net.

New (A) *Vancouver journal on the discovery of Puget Sound, by a member of the Chatham's crew*. Seattle, E. S. Meany, University Station. 43 pp. \$1.00, net.

North, Catharine M. *History of Berlin, Connecticut*. New Haven: Tuttle, Morehouse, Taylor Co. 294 pp. \$2.50, net.

Pleasants, Sally M. *Old Virginia. [Ante-bellum reminiscences.]* Menasha, Wis.: G. Banta Pub. Co. 165 pp. \$1.25.

Shoemaker, Henry W. *Early potters of Clinton County [Pennsylvania]*. Altoona, Pa.: Altoona Tribune Pub. Co. 37 pp. 25 cents.

Siebert, Wilbur H. *The loyalist refugees of New Hampshire*. Columbus, O.: Univ. of Ohio. 23 pp.

Stephens, H. Morse, and Bolton, Herbert E., editors. *The Pacific Ocean in history*. N. Y.: Macmillan. 502 pp. \$4.00, net.

Taber, James R. *History of Unity, Maine*. Augusta, Me.: Maine Farmer Press. 144 pp.

Tolman, George. *Early town records. Concord, Mass.: Concord Antiquarian Society*. 24 pp. 25 cents.

Ware, Edith E. *Political opinion in Massachusetts during Civil War and Reconstruction*. N. Y.: Longmans. 219 pp. (7½ pp. bibls.). \$1.75, net.

Whittaker, Milo L. *Pathbreakers and pioneers of the Pueblo region*. Pueblo, Col.: Franklin Press Co. 160 pp. \$2.50.

Young, Robert K. *Tales of Tioga, Pennsylvania*. Wellsboro, Pa.: The author. 158 pp. \$1.00.

##### Ancient History.

Chiers, Edward. *Lists of personal names from the Temple School at Nippur*. 2 vols. Phila.: Univ. of Pa. Museum. Each \$5.00, net.

Olmstead, Albert T. *Assyrian historiography*. Columbia, Mo.: Univ. of Mo. 66 pp. \$1.00, net.

##### European History.

Alexinsky, Gregor. *Russia and Europe*. N. Y.: Scribner. 352 pp. \$3.00, net.

Gibbons, Helen D. *The red rugs of Tarsus; a woman's record of the Armenian massacre of 1909*. N. Y.: Century Co. 194 pp. \$1.25, net.

Hazen, Charles D. *The French Revolution and Napoleon*. N. Y.: Holt. 385 pp. \$2.50, net.

Kornilov, Alexander. *Modern Russian history*. 2 vols. N. Y.: A. A. Knopf. 310, 370 pp. (3½ pp. bibls.). \$5.00, net.

Naumann, Friedrich. *Central Europe*. N. Y.: A. A. Knopf. 354 pp. (17 pp. bibls.). \$3.00, net.

Novikova, Olga A. *Russian memories*. N. Y.: Dutton. 310 pp. \$3.50, net.

Seven Years in Vienna (1907-1914). *A record of intrigue*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 268 pp. \$1.50, net.

Smidovitch, Vikentii V. *In the war [memories of Russo-Japanese War]*. N. Y.: Kennerley. 381 pp. \$2.00, net.

Stevenson, Capt. G. de S. C. *A century of war; a précis of the world's campaigns, 1815-1914*. N. Y.: G. E. Stechert. 133 pp. \$1.00.

##### The Great War.

Allen, H. Warner. *The unbroken line; along the French trenches from Switzerland to the North Sea*. N. Y.: Dutton. 324 pp. \$2.00, net.



- Bang, J. P. Hurrah and Hallelujah; the teaching of Germany's poets, prophets, professors, and preachers; a documentation. N. Y.: Doran. 234 pp. \$1.00, net.
- Brittain, Harry E. To Verdun from the Somme. N. Y.: J. Lane. 142 pp. \$1.00, net.
- Bullitt, Ernesta D. An uncensored diary from the Central Empires. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday, Page. 205 pp. \$1.25, net.
- Cravath, Paul D. Great Britain's past. N. Y.: Appleton. 127 pp. \$1.00, net.
- Doty, Madeleine Z. Short rations; an American woman in Germany, 1915-1916. N. Y.: Century Co. 274 pp. \$1.50, net.
- Graham, Stephen. Russia in 1916. N. Y.: Macmillan. 191 pp. \$1.25, net.
- Great (The) War. Vol. 2. The mobilization of the moral and physical forces. Vol. 3. The original German plan and its culmination. Phila.: G. Barrie's Sons. 494, 500 pp. Each \$5.00.
- Hargrave, John. At Suvla Bay. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 181 pp. \$1.50, net.
- Jones, John P. America entangled; the secret plotting of German spies in the United States. N. Y.: G. A. Laut. 224 pp. 50 cents.
- McConnell, James R. Flying for France. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday, Page. 157 pp. \$1.00, net.
- Mücke, Hellmuth von. The "Ayesta," being the adventures of the landing squad of the "Emden." Boston: Ritter and Co. 223 pp. \$1.25, net.
- Rockwell, William W. The pitiful plight of the Assyrian Christians in Persia and Kurdistan. N. Y.: Am. Comm. for Armenian and Syrian relief. 72 pp. (3 pp. bibls.).
- Souza, Charles de, Count. Germany in defeat. N. Y.: Dutton. 227 pp. \$2.00, net.

#### Medieval History.

- Davenport, E. H. The false decretals. N. Y.: Longmans. 111 pp. (3½ pp. bibls.). \$1.50, net.

#### Miscellaneous.

- American (The) Year Book, 1916. N. Y.: Appleton. 862 pp. \$3.00.
- Cronin, Gerald E. The South American wars of independence. Brooklyn, N. Y.: [The author]. 20 pp.
- Gray, L. H., editor. The mythology of all races. Vol. 6. Indian. Boston: M. Jones Co. 404 pp. (36 pp. bibls.). \$6.00.
- Latourette, Kenneth S. The development of China. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 273 pp. (7 pp. bibls.). \$1.75, net.
- Laurence, Daniel. The truth about Mexico. N. Y.: N. Y. Evening Post. 30 pp. 10 cents.
- Waterman, Thomas T. Bandelier's contribution to the study of ancient Mexican social organization. Berkeley, Cal.: Univ. of Cal. 249-282 pp. 35 cents.

#### Biography.

- O'Connor, John B. St. Dominic and the order of preachers. Somerset, Ohio: Rosary Press. 193 pp. 75 cents.
- Goldziher, Ignatius. Mohammed and Islam. New Haven: Yale Univ. 350 pp. \$3.00, net.
- Reed, M. Dr. Martin Luther's Leben. Chicago: Wartburg Pub. House. 270 pp. 35 cents.
- Singmaster, Elsie. Martin Luther; the story of his life. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 138 pp. \$1.00, net.
- Tate, Gerald. Madame Roland. N. Y.: Fifth Ave. Pub. Co. 106 pp. \$1.00, net.

#### Government and Politics.

- Kettleborough, Charles, editor. Constitution making in Indiana. Vol. 1, 1780-1851. Vol. 2, 1851-1916. Indianapolis: Indiana Hist. Comm. 241 + 530, 693 pp. Each \$1.50.
- McCormick, Frederick. The menace of Japan. Boston: Little, Brown. 372 pp. \$2.00, net.
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- Weyl, Walter E. American world policies. N. Y.: Macmillan. 307 pp. \$2.25, net.

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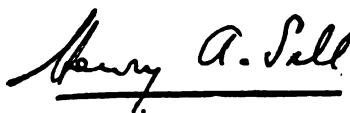
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## CONTENTS

Bobbie and the War, by Bobbie's Father	- - - - -	177
The Great War: From Spectator to Participant, by Prof. A. C. McLaughlin		183
Patriotism and the Teaching of History and Civics, by Prof. H. V. Ames	-	188
The Passing of Splendid Isolation, by Dr. A. P. Scott	- - -	192
Books on Recent European History, listed by Prof. C. D. Hazen	- -	196
Summer Reading on the War, listed by Prof. G. M. Dutcher	- -	197
National Board for Historical Service, by Prof. J. T. Shotwell	- -	199
Reports from the Historical Field	- - - - -	200
History in Summer Schools, 1917	- - - - -	201
Book Reviews, edited by Prof. W. J. Chase	- - - - -	202
Periodical Literature, edited by Dr. G. B. Richards	- - -	205
Recent Historical Publications, listed by Dr. C. A. Coulomb	- -	205

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**But as history teachers, distinct from the body of citizens, there is much for each to do.**

You can inform your community through newspapers and other publications of the reasons for the present war.

You can explain to your neighborhood the principles of the American government, the grounds of democracy, the duties of true citizenship, and the pressing need of united and vigorous action.

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## Bobbie and The War<sup>1</sup>

BY BOBBIE'S FATHER.

Bobbie is just an ordinary American boy. He is nearly fourteen and is about ready to enter high school. In scholarship he is below rather than above the average; but he is usually interested in his lessons, and his father is not worrying about his ability to make good. He enjoys sports, games and outdoor life, and like all true boys he loves to tinker with tools. He has shown an unusual affection for animals and will make a pet of anything from an antiquated hen to a tadpole.

Perhaps it was his sensitiveness to the suffering of animals which led us to avoid talking about the Great War when he was near. Perhaps it was because we felt, like most American parents, that the War was monstrous, insensate, something too horrible to bring into the consciousness of a happy whole-souled boy of fourteen. We were thankful that a regulation of the local board of education forbade the discussion of the War in school rooms. And we tried to keep away from him the more terrible of the pictures which soon filled the illustrated papers.

But in the two years of warfare he has grown to take an interest in things. At times he read the daily newspapers and looked through the illustrated weeklies. He became interested in the War in spite of us and occasionally dropped a remark which showed he was forming opinions upon it. He shared his spending money with the Belgians whenever the family took up a collection from the children's banks and the parents' bank accounts for relief work.

And then like every normal American child he asked questions about the War. At first we put him off with those general colorless and neutral answers which parents are so skilled in framing. But we found that he was getting false notions of the War from other sources. We reached the conclusion that if we did not furnish the truth he might never get it. And thus we set about answering carefully some of his questions. Six of these questions and answers are here given. They are arranged in a logical order rather than in the haphazard conversation of family life.

### WHY IS THE WAR?

"Well, Daddy, what made this War come anyhow?" he asked.

There are two very different sets of causes of the present War, and indeed of any great happening in

history. The one set of causes is like the spark that falls among gunpowder and makes a great explosion; the other set of causes explains how the gunpowder came to be where it was, and how the spark came to fall upon the gunpowder.

The spark which set off the present terrible explosion in Europe was a little incident which took place in southeastern Europe. In the region between Vienna and Constantinople, which you can easily find on the map, there exist a score or more of different peoples. Each of these has its own language, its own dress, and its own habits of living. These peoples are included in a few great governments—Austro-Hungary, Serbia, Roumania, Bulgaria and Turkey—with several smaller ones. During the year 1912 several of these countries tried to obtain the lands of the non-Christian Turks, and after they defeated the Turks, the victors started to quarrel among themselves about the division of the lands. This gave the Turks an opportunity to get back part of their territory. During this time some of the less important peoples under the rule of Austro-Hungary also conspired to obtain their independence. On June 28, 1914, an Austrian prince, the heir to the throne, was murdered in Serajevo, in a country much dissatisfied with Austrian government. An investigation by Austrians showed to their satisfaction that the murder had been planned in the neighboring country of Serbia.

Austria immediately made demands upon Serbia which, if accepted, would have destroyed the independence of Serbia and have tended to make it a province of Austria. The demands were accompanied with a threat that if not accepted in forty-eight hours, Austria would invade Serbia. When this threat became known in Russia, the latter country took steps to protect Serbia. Germany backed up Austria. England tried to get all parties to demobilize their armies and submit the Serbian question to a council of all the great nations. This Germany and Austria refused to do and on August 1, 1914, war was declared by Germany against Russia. This at once brought France into the war as Russia's ally, and a few days later England entered on account of the German invasion of Belgium. Thus the murder of the Austrian prince was the spark which set on fire the vast European powder magazine.

But you ask why was Europe so combustible that a single murder would set it all afire? Who laid the gunpowder in a place where the spark would reach

<sup>1</sup> Copyright, 1917, Eakins, Palmer and Harrar, Philadelphia.

it? To understand this, Bobbie, you would have to study carefully the history of Europe for the past hundred years. But there are a few things which you can understand.

1. Years ago Germany adopted a system of universal military service which created a great standing army. This made the other countries so afraid of her that for protection they were compelled to maintain similar armies. Thus all of Europe, except England, became a kind of military camp; military leaders, particularly in Germany, directed the activities of the nations, and often prevented the people from governing themselves. This system, which is called militarism, is the thing which President Wilson says must be destroyed if all nations are to be free.

2. Germany, like England and the United States, has grown enormously in wealth, manufactures and commerce in the last forty years. She secured a large part of the trade of the world, and her ships—some of the largest ever built—were found in all the great harbors of the world. But Germany was not content with this peaceful trade; she desired foreign colonies and a great navy like that of England; she longed for coaling stations in all seas. If it had not been for the United States she might have obtained the Philippines in 1898; but for the United States she, with the other European states, would have brought about the partition of China in 1901; and but for the Monroe Doctrine she would have established colonies in the West Indies and South America. As it was she secured islands in the Pacific, in the East Indies and large tracts of land in Africa. With the consent of Turkey she started to build a railroad from Constantinople to Bagdad. During this expansion if Germany did not get what she wished she would show the "mailed fist" of her great army and rattle the sword in the scabbard. She would insult others as the German Admiral insulted Dewey in Manila harbor. Europe was in a state of unrest because Germany would not consent to reduce the size of her army nor cease building up a navy. Thus England felt compelled to build more ships; France must add another year of military service to every man's life; Austria, Russia and Italy joined in the race, and tried to keep up the pace set by the leaders.

3. During this period of armed peace the six great nations of Europe fell apart into two groups of three each. Germany, Austria and Italy made what was called the "Triple Alliance"; while England, France and Russia constituted the "Triple Entente" (the word entente is a French word meaning an understanding or agreement). The two groups stood and glared at each other like two gangs of toughs, each daring the other to do its worst. Sooner or later something would be said or done which would bring on a fight between the two groups. But note that when the Great War did break out, Italy left the Triple Alliance and joined the other group, which we now call "the Allies."

4. There were many other things which led the European nations to be jealous of one another. France wanted to get back provinces which Germany had

taken from her in 1870. Russia wanted to get Constantinople so that her wheat and oil could safely be exported. Germany wanted to control Constantinople and a railroad to Bagdad and the Persian Gulf, thus securing a share in the trade with India and China ports; Austria wished to annex some of the petty states to the southeast, and Italy hoped to annex territory near her borders inhabited by men of the Italian race.

You will see, therefore, Bobbie, that it was not the murder of a prince which really caused this War. It was the existence of a class of military men who controlled the governments of some of the powers; who refused to let the people decide great questions, and who hoped to use armies and navies to obtain more lands by conquest.

#### WHY ARE WE IN THE WAR?

*"Yes, Dad, I understand now how the War happened in Europe. But why did we go into it? We studied in school that Washington, Jefferson and Monroe advised the United States to keep out of European affairs. What has made us take up arms against Germany?"*

In the first place, Bobbie, you must remember that the American government is based upon the right of the people to govern themselves. Lincoln said we possessed "government of the people, for the people, and by the people." We believe that all people of all countries ought to have this right. And we are willing to help them obtain this greatest of all rights. Some people have said the American nation pays too much attention to making money and that it worships the "almighty dollar." But this is not true to-day and probably never has been true of our nation as a whole. Nearly a hundred years ago we sympathized with the people of Central and South America in their rebellion against Spain, and protected them by the Monroe Doctrine after they had obtained independence.

In the last twenty years particularly the American nation has played the part of a "big brother" to many other peoples. In 1895 we protected Venezuela against the aggression of England. In 1898 we fought a war for the independence of Cuba and we have since aided in supporting an orderly self-government in the island. In 1898 we secured possession of the Philippines, and we have governed them since in the interests of the inhabitants, and have instructed them in the work of government so that some day they may become an independent nation. In 1901 we helped to prevent the European nations from dividing up China. Our share of the indemnity exacted from China has been used to educate Chinese students in American universities. We have earnestly supported the new republic in that country. From 1912 to the present time we have tried to encourage the Mexicans to establish a people's government. American lives have been lost and millions of dollars' worth of American property destroyed in Mexico in this period during their civil wars. But we have not desired to con-

quer the country; we want them to establish a government which will bring liberty to all Mexicans and protection for all foreigners. In 1915 we opened the Panama Canal to the commerce of the whole world, not claiming for American vessels any advantages over foreign vessels, although our government furnished all the \$250,000,000 necessary to build the canal. If you will remember these things you will understand how the United States stands to-day not only as the wealthiest country in the world, not only as the most democratic of great powers, but also as the friend of the oppressed and the willing helper of peoples striving for the same kind of liberty.

But now to return to our entrance into this War. When the War started in August, 1914, most Americans were willing to follow the old advice of Washington, Jefferson and Monroe. They thought the War was Europe's business, not ours, and that we should keep out of the whole affair. But as the months of warfare dragged on and as unlawful acts and inhumane forms of warfare were used more and more by the Germans, the American people, gradually realized that the War was an attack upon the rights of all liberty-loving peoples. The German military system (not the German people, but their Kaiser, their rulers and their military men) was seen to be a danger to all free governments. England, France, Russia, Italy, Servia, Belgium, Japan, Roumania, even little Portugal, were straining every nerve, sacrificing their ablest men, in the cause of human freedom. Should the United States enjoy the benefits when victory came to the Allies, and not raise a hand to help them in their life and death struggle? All the history of the last twenty years showed that it was the duty of the United States to leave its old narrow American policy and join the Allies in their efforts to destroy the evils of German militarism.

You should note, Bobbie, and remember some of the acts of the Germans which led the American people at last to believe that this militarism must be crushed:

1. The Germans invaded Belgium in order to advance upon France in a place where the French were not expecting attack. Germany did this despite the fact that she had solemnly promised to respect Belgium's lands. She violated "Belgium's neutrality" and treated her own promise as a "scrap of paper."

2. The Germans occupied Belgium and northeastern France, and established a merciless government over the inhabitants. Atrocities of many kinds were inflicted upon the people; food supplies and cattle were taken away and the people would have starved by hundreds of thousands if energetic Americans and others had not collected money and supplies from various nations and dispensed them to the people under the eyes of the German military officers. Able-bodied men and women were dragged from their children and parents and sent to Germany to work almost as slaves for their conquerors. The world cannot soon forget the horrors of this military rule in Belgium.

8. The *Lusitania*, an unarmed passenger steamer, was torpedoed by a submarine without warning on

May 7, 1915, and eleven hundred and thirty-four men, women and children passengers and members of the crew lost their lives, of whom over one hundred were American citizens.

4. Unarmed merchant vessels of the United States and of other neutrals were torpedoed without warning, and many innocent persons, in no way connected with the War, were killed in violation of international law and of the common principles of humanity.

5. Germany issued an order to be effective February 1, 1917, that any vessel of any nationality found by her submarines within hundreds of miles of the European coast should be sunk without warning.

6. She bombarded defenceless towns in England and France with warships and with Zeppelins, injuring mainly women and children.

7. She organized bomb plots in the United States against American factories, and tried to involve us in war with Mexico and Japan.

8. In general she tried to make her methods of warfare so terrible that her enemies would be frightened into submission. This is what the Germans call the policy of *Schrecklichkeit* (frightfulness).

These are horrible things to tell to a boy of your age, Bobbie, and we would not tell you about them were it not that you must understand how boys and girls in Europe and on peaceful vessels on the sea have been treated by this German war machine. You must not begin to hate the German people; and particularly you must treat respectfully and kindly the hundreds of thousands of law-abiding persons in this country who are of German birth or descent. We do not make war on the German people, but upon those military rulers who have threatened to destroy all that other persons love and cherish. Out of pity for these oppressed peoples and out of fear for our own liberties we must unite with the other nations to stop this reign of lawlessness.

#### A DIFFERENT WAR FROM ALL OTHERS?

*"I wish I knew what the newspapers mean by saying this War is different from other ones. To-day there are guns and cannons and battles as in our Civil War. Is it really different?"*

Yes, Bobbie, looked at simply as warfare, this War is different from all that have preceded it. It is different in its world-wide extent. It has spread from Europe to the interior of Africa, to the Samoan Islands in the Pacific, to Bagdad, the city of the Arabian Nights, and to the American continents. No war in history was ever carried on over such a vast territory.

It is different, too, in the number of people engaged. The total population of the countries now engaged in the war is almost one thousand million persons. The armies in the field in Europe to-day, numbering their millions of soldiers, are as numerous as the entire population of Europe a few centuries ago. The world never saw such armies, and indeed never before these days could such armies have been fed and equipped.

It is very different, too, in the mode of warfare. All the great inventions of modern times have been turned into weapons of war. The powers of electricity and steam, of the automobile and aeroplane, of the steamship and the submarine, have been taken from peaceful pursuits for the killing of men. Science has discovered new and more powerful explosives, it has furnished suffocating gases and terrifying liquid fire. Great guns, with a range of twenty miles and firing projectiles weighing almost a ton, have been prepared. Armored automobiles—"tanks"—have been created. It is a war in which all these wonderful and useful inventions have become engines of destruction.

It is different because of the prominence of trench warfare. Old battles were fought in the open with great masses of men. To-day armies dig long defiles in the ground, with caves and alcoves and galleries like those in a mine. Every point is protected by machine guns which spit out a continuous line of bullets. For a long time it was almost impossible to reduce such trenches, but the Allies have found that by the use of enormously heavy guns and the expenditure of vast amounts of ammunition they can be rendered untenable.

It is different in the use of aeroplanes. These are used not only for bombing expeditions, but also to photograph the enemy's trenches and to determine where the great guns, five or six or ten miles in the rear, shall direct their fire. Without the aeroplane the great gun would be almost useless against the trenches.

It is different in its use of the submarine. This has changed the character of naval fighting. A battleship while not underway can protect itself against submarines, but vessels plying the high seas, and particularly cargo and passenger vessels, cannot surround themselves with nets to catch torpedoes and at the same time proceed to their destination. They must take their chances and trust that a fleet of small submarine chasers will put most of the submarines out of business. In the hands of a ruthless enemy the submarine is a dangerous weapon. It can best be outwitted by small cargo boats such as those now being built by the United States Government.

It is different in the enormous expenditures of money. The estimated expenses of all the warring nations for the first two years of the War were about fifty billions of dollars. The War expenditure for each day during this period was seventy-three millions, or enough to support the entire school system of Philadelphia for six years.

But after all the War differs most in the elaborate manufacture of munitions and implements of war. In all the countries, back of the area of warfare, blast furnaces, steel plants, ship yards and equipment factories are working night and day to furnish materials for the armies and navies. All the great modern industrial plants have been turned over into munition and equipment factories. Able-bodied men are used where absolutely necessary, but the greater number of workers are old men, women and children. These are the ones who are preparing ammunition, clothing

and equipment for their fathers and husbands on the firing line.

It is indeed a fearful thing to contemplate this highly efficient national organization existing throughout Europe, with entire nations devoting their best thought and their greatest energy to producing weapons of destruction. We can only reconcile ourselves to the fact, Bobbie, by believing that this will never have to be done again. The destruction of militarism will be followed by the disarming of the great nations and by their return to lives of peace, comfort, charity and uprightness. For this we shall all hope and pray and work.

#### WHAT IS PATRIOTISM?

*"Our school teacher to-day asked us to define patriotism. We all said it meant love of country. Is that all there is to it, Daddy?"*

Yes, Bobbie, patriotism is love of one's country. It is a strong personal attachment which is as natural as to love one's mother. Nearly everyone shows this love for the country of his birth or adoption, and the very few who do not are abhorred as traitors, to be classed with persons who have no love or respect for their parents. But be sure of this, Bobbie, that love of one's country is not simply to love a particular part of the surface of the earth. You remember our old cat, Tabby, don't you? And how when the family moved to a neighboring house she would not go with us, but persisted in staying about the old place? True patriotism is not like that stupid place attachment of a cat or a hen. Nor is true patriotism simply a reverence for the nation's flag and a respect for the national anthem, although every patriot will show such reverence and respect. True patriotism includes love of place and love of the nation's emblems, but it includes far more than this. Its real essence is love and respect and appreciation for the nation's fundamental principles and ideals—the things which the American flag stands for. I mean, Bobbie, the great liberties which you and I possess in this country and which we would like to see all peoples possess.

Among these liberties which we love as real American patriots, may be mentioned the right to self-government, the right to elect our own governors, the right to impartial justice in the courts, the right to a good education, the right to a fair opportunity to earn a decent livelihood, the right to protection from dangerous occupations, the right to protection from unscrupulous persons who would monopolize the necessities of life. These are some of the rights which, as American citizens, we enjoy, and because of them we love our country, its institutions and ideals.

But remember this, Bobbie, that anyone who accepts these American rights and tries to live up to these American ideals, is a poor patriot indeed if he is content to enjoy these things alone. He is not a true American or a true patriot unless he is anxious and willing to share these great liberties with other peoples. It is because we wanted others to enjoy similar liberties that we have protected South and Central American republics, that we freed Cuba, that

we established a representative government in the Philippines, and that we have entered this present War.

You can readily understand, Bobbie, that love of one's country is something which drives us into action, it compels us to do things for the good of our country and the furtherance of its principles. You may never know or appreciate all that your parents have done out of love for you; but you do realize that they are daily working to satisfy your needs for food, clothing, education and physical and moral well-being. You know, too, that your own love for parents and brothers and sisters leads you to many acts of kindness and helpfulness in the family.

It is much the same with the true lover of country. His patriotism will show itself continuously in honesty in the payment of taxes, in intelligence in the election of able officers, in serving on juries, in refusing to monopolize necessities of life, and even in such simple matters as promptly cleaning snow off the sidewalk.

In times of crisis patriotism may lead citizens to make great sacrifices. Your mother, Bobbie, risked her health and perhaps life, in nursing you during that serious illness last year. So when the nation needs help and assistance all citizens obey the call of duty, even, if necessary, giving life itself in order to preserve and protect the life and principles and independence of the country. I want to read you a few sentences from a book written by an Englishman for English boys and girls. Its statements apply with equal force to an American boy like yourself.

"In all your study of the War, make this your first and foremost thought, that the War is for you. It is you who will enjoy the new order of things when the War is done. Your countrymen are giving their lives for their country; it is your country, and in it you will pass your life. Our dead have died for you. . . . It is you who will find this world better than they found it. You will live in peace, because they died in war; you will go safe and free, because they went under discipline and into danger up to the moment of their death. You will have a good time, because they suffered. To you, who gain by their loss, and whose life is made comfortable by their lives laid down, comes the question, from countless little wooden crosses over graves in France and Belgium and Gallipoli, and from all the unmarked graves of the sea. *Is it nothing to you?* Why, the War is your War. You will enter into all that it achieves, and inherit all that it earns; and the miseries of it will be the making of your happiness. There are many good reasons why a man should fight for his country, but they come to this one reason, that he is fighting for the future of his country. And you are the future. We older people so soon will be gone; you will stay here, you for whom your countrymen today are in the toils of this War. You are the future, we are the past. We have lived in a world which you never saw, and you will live in a world which we shall never see."

President Wilson, too, in his proclamation of April 15, 1917, showed how every part of our population

should do something to support the Government in the present emergency. The army and navy must be built up and made efficient; abundant food must be supplied not only for ourselves, but for the other nations in the common cause; shipyards, mines and factories must be made more productive; farmers should help by raising larger crops; middle men ought to show their patriotism by not asking unreasonable profits; railway men should make their systems more effective; miners and manufacturers should appreciate how indispensable is their help, and housewives should practice economy. "The supreme test of the nation has come. We must all speak, act and serve together."

#### WHAT CAN I DO?

*"Daddy, when I see these men enlisting,—maybe they will be killed in battle,—I am ashamed of myself for not doing anything for my country. Isn't there something I can do?"*

Yes, indeed, there is much that you as a boy of fourteen can do for our country. In the first place you must make yourself understand fully what our English friend has told us so well, that this War is being fought by the United States and the Allies for the rights of the boys and girls of these countries. Keep always before you the thought that the blood of these soldiers, the struggles of these armies, the endless workings of munitions factories and the spending of untold millions of dollars are being used for the protection of your life and happiness. If you always keep this idea in mind you will find much to do for the country.

You will, I am sure, Bobbie, appreciate how necessary it is that every American boy and girl make the very best of himself. It would be pitiful indeed, if, after all this bloodshed and suffering, you, the future citizens, should be weak in body, or ignorant in mind, or vicious in morals and religion. Your first and greatest duty to-day is to take all the advantages offered in the school, the home and the church, to make of yourself a strong, intelligent and honest citizen. Do not weaken your body by smoking cigarettes, or by doing anything else which will injure your health. Do not neglect your studies, for without intelligent citizens there can be no true democracy. Do not acquire bad habits or use vile language, for these will prevent your becoming a useful citizen. Eat good, plain, wholesome food, take plenty of exercise either in games or in farm labor if you are strong enough, get plenty of sleep and be regular and punctual in your habits and school work. This is your greatest duty to-day.

Besides these things, Bobbie, you may, if you are strong enough, help your country in other ways. There is a great need of help in domestic life and upon farms and in factories. You are too young to do a man's part, and you must not weaken your body by undertaking too severe tasks. But you can help mother in the house, you can look after a small vegetable garden, or you can raise some chickens or pigs. If you help in this way about the home, the garden

or the farm, you will give your parents and elder brothers and sisters more time and strength to do their heavier work for the country. When you read the morning papers and note what terrible sacrifices have been made for you, resolve that you will do something during the day to partly pay back the debt you owe these brave men and women. And if you look at the evening papers to see what progress has been made in the War, ask yourself the question, What have I done this day to help the great cause?

You can show your patriotism, too, by avoiding all kinds of waste. Boys, and girls, too, are likely to be reckless and careless in the use of tools, household utensils, games, foods and clothing. If you are tempted to such carelessness and waste, just consider how many thousands of boys and girls in Europe have insufficient food and clothing, and remember that their parents have no money to buy games, tools and household goods. What you waste would probably keep some starving Belgian boy in sound health, protected from the cold and happy in disposition. Be careful, therefore, of your food, clothing and belongings. Just to the extent that you avoid needless waste will your parents and your country be enabled to help the other nations which are fighting for the same cause as ourselves.

When you are old enough and strong enough, Bobbie, you should join some of the organizations of boys and girls for patriotic work. It is often easier and pleasanter for anyone to work with a group of congenial patriots than to try to do everything by himself. There are many such organizations for junior citizens; sewing clubs, planting clubs, Boy Scouts, boys' clubs, Camp Fire Girls and junior associations in connection with patriotic, charitable and religious organizations. When your parents think you are able to do so it will be a good thing to join such bodies.

#### THE LAST WAR?

*"Will this be the last War, Daddy? And how will quarrels be settled after the War is over?"*

Ah, Bobbie, those are questions which all the older and wiser heads are asking. Literally millions of people throughout this war-devastated world are hoping and praying every minute of the day and long into the sleepless night, that God and man will never permit such awful scenes to occur again. The greatest minds of the world are now trying to devise plans by which nations shall be freed from the terrors of militarism.

When the military rule of Germany is overthrown, there will be, we believe, a world league of free, self-governing communities. Each will have its own national government based upon the will of the people, and all, we hope, will join in a league of republics to preserve the peace of the world. The commerce of the world will be free to all. When quarrels and controversies arise between nations, as they must at times, they will be settled by submission to a court of arbitration, in which the nations not involved in the quarrel will be the jurors, as in your games, Bobbie, you

submit disputed points to the umpire. This is the hope of the American people. And this is something which you, as an American citizen, must strive earnestly and loyally to bring about. The world is looking to the United States to take the lead in the abolition of war. You must see that this ideal is preserved after it has been secured when this contest is over.

As President Wilson said in his speech to Congress, on April 2, 1917, "We shall fight for the things which we have always carried nearest our hearts—for democracy, for the right of those who submit to authority to have a voice in their own government, for the rights and liberties of small nations, for a universal dominion of right by such a concert of free peoples as shall bring peace and safety to all nations and make the world itself at last free. To such a task we can dedicate our lives and our fortunes."

Statesmen, business men, labor leaders, army generals and all thinking men are now actively engaged in trying to secure such a permanent peace for all the world.

You, Bobbie, your brothers and sisters, your boy and girl friends, and all the unknown boys and girls in all the countries engaged in this war will live to enjoy the happiness and comfort of this universal peace. For you, boys and girls, we elders have fought and suffered and conquered.

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## The Great War: From Spectator to Participant

BY PROFESSOR ANDREW C. McLAUGHLIN, UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO.

When the war broke out in 1914 everyone in America was astonished, and almost everyone was quite unable to understand the fundamental causes of it. Many of us were more than astonished; we were thoroughly out of patience and without immediate and deep sympathies for either side in the struggle. America had lived in isolation. Though our government had been to some extent drawn into the swirl of world politics, we had no deep laid scheme for exploitation of inferior races, no colonial ambitions, no determination to force our products on other nations, and no fear of neighboring governments. We did not know that we were being jealously watched and that spies recorded our temper and our frailties. We did not see that we had anything to do with a European war. Of the ever vexed Balkans we knew little or nothing, though we had heard of the "sick man of Europe," who seemed to be an unconscionable time in shuffling off this mortal coil. We had read of Hague conferences and peace societies and peace palaces, and believed that war was too absurd to be really possible between the nations of Western Europe.

With the invasion of Belgium we began to rub our eyes. We found that a region which had been known as the "cockpit" of Europe was once more to be beaten down by the tramp of alien armies. And then came the stories of atrocities in Belgium. At first we read with doubt, and only after the publication of the "Bryce Report" with the supporting documents did we see the realities and believe the unbelievable. We discovered what militarism meant in its final qualities, militarism which included devastation and horrors as portions of military policy. Belgium settled our sympathies, for, we saw that the whole thing was premeditated; we realized that methods of mobilization, not to speak of strategic railroads, are not mapped out in a moment. *Machtpolitik* was shattered when it shocked the conscience of the world. John Bright, I believe it was, said that the only value of war is to teach geography; but this war has taught language; everybody knows what *Schrecklichkeit* means, and everybody knows too that it is involved in the philosophy of war when it is carried out with relentless thoroughness and with absolute disregard of the ordinary promptings of humanity.

The attempts of German propagandists, to justify the invasion, showed an astonishing inability or unwillingness to make frank use of public documentary material. Documents found in the Belgium archives showed that some years ago an English military officer and a Belgium official had consulted together as to what steps England should take in case Germany invaded Belgium. After Germany had done the very thing which England and Belgium had feared, German propagandists tried to justify her by

declaring that Belgium was considering means of preventing it. The use made of the documents actually affronted our intelligence and added to our distrust.

At that time we began to study deliberately the problem as to which nation was responsible for the war. It is now unnecessary to enter into the details of this question. None of the nations of Europe had been free, the world had not been free, from a species of intrusive, aggressive nationalism and from jealous rivalry in trade which made the maintenance of peace exceedingly difficult; colonial ambitions and dollar diplomacy had long daily threatened the peace of the world. This we knew; but even if no one nation was solely responsible for a condition which made the maintenance of peace difficult, we were compelled to conclude that the outbreak of hostilities was primarily chargeable to Germany; and, as we realized this, we became certain that America would hope for the defeat of the German armies. As we studied the situation it became plain that war was due either to a psychological explosion or to premeditated determination to gain territory and power by immediate action. The whole psychological condition of Germany was prepared for it; war and armies, engines of destruction, the jealous enmity ascribed to foreign nations, the loudly proclaimed perils of the Fatherland—those things kept constantly in men's minds for years—laid the train for the conflagration. That the Teutonic powers deliberately planned a war in 1914 is indicated by considerable evidence. Though to-day we may think this evidence not entirely final and conclusive, it doubtless had its effect on everybody acquainted with the history of the last decade. This at least appeared certain: the military authorities in Germany, directly and with amazing forethought, planned for a war which must come soon, and they were determined to win for the country a "place in the sun" and establish its power. If authorities are convinced that a war is inevitable and approve what they confidently believe will be its outcome, are they not likely to grasp the favorable moment for beginning hostilities?

It is sometimes said that Germany intended to dominate the world. We had great difficulty in believing in the existence of such fantastic ambitions, but we came slowly to see (1) that Germany believed in the superiority of German efficiency and of German culture, and thought they must be made triumphant; (2) that at least the ruling classes had a curious incapacity to understand that political control was not necessary to the extension of influence, to permeation of thought, and even to the development of trade; (3) that these persons were determined that the world should live in awe of Germany, and if rivals threatened to prosper they must be beaten into

becoming humility.<sup>1</sup> Although all this is probably below the truth it is so preposterous that we still have moments of doubt; and yet a person who has had unusual opportunities for knowing the situation, and has but recently returned, after some years of residence in Germany, tells us, "The Battle of the Marne not only saved the Allies—it saved Germany." That is the opinion even of a large part of the people of Germany. In the defeat at the Marne the hope of a world dominion was shattered. The lunacy of the war lords then in control was changed.

Still, as we began to realize all these things, we did not yet feel that it was our business to enter the conflict, not even when we came to see that America herself was in actual danger, certainly in actual and immediate danger if Germany was not defeated by the Allies. We were loath to credit what appears to be the truth, that, to attribute to the Kaiser the offensive words of Napoleon—America was within the scope of his policy. Possibly it was shameful in us to wait and to rely on the allied powers when we began to feel that this defeat imperiled our own safety. But something more than fear was needed to force us into the fight; not until the issues were clear to the nations of the world, not until there was hope for a constructive peace, not till we heard the call of humanity, were we prepared to fling in our power and resources.

Doubtless our final entrance into the conflict was brought about by cumulative irritation at German methods and policies. Our conviction of their unworthiness grew gradually day by day. This conviction was the result of experience of having actually lived through a great crisis. Among these irritations, which opened our eyes and hardened our hearts, none was more powerful than the machinations of the German spies. We were more than irritated, we were enlightened; we discovered what *Weltpolitik* and *Realpolitik* really were; German espionage in this country helped us to grasp the nature of a principle which is essentially criminal and which, if it continues, must make decent international relationships quite impossible. And so this fact began to stand out strongly: democracy cannot survive in an atmosphere of indecent intrigue; the government at Washington was forced to conclude that we cannot act in friendliness or co-operate with a government whose ways are devious, ungenerous, purely selfish and unreliable.

It is perhaps unnecessary to speak of Zeppelin raids, poisonous gases, and deportation of men and women from the occupied portions of France and Belgium, although we have no right to forget these facts; they are natural products, once more, of militaristic doctrine. We must remember that, if war means these horrors, all our efforts may well be directed against the prolongation of war and the success of

militarism. Civilization is actually at stake unless something can be done to establish a decent working order among the nations of the world.<sup>2</sup>

About the beginning of 1915 Admiral Tirpitz was reported to have made a statement about the use of submarines for destroying merchantmen, and about the beginning of February an effort was made to establish a war zone about the British Isles. Almost exactly the same time England put food for Germany on the contraband list, her technical excuse being that Germany had taken government charge of all food in the empire and thus could use all of her food as a basis of war. The diplomatic controversy that arose over the questions of contraband and blockade and war zones cannot be entered upon here in any detail. It is apparent to my mind that Germany cannot excuse her attacks upon merchant vessels on the ground that she was merely retaliating against the British policy of starvation, though it is not unlikely that Britain would have attempted to use her fleet for that purpose even if Germany had not brought her submarines into play—just as Germany starved Paris in 1870. And especially is retaliation not tolerable when it is exercised without any reference to the rights and lives of neutrals. If Great Britain broke the rules of international law or violently extended them for her purposes, there is a very marked "difference between a prize court and a torpedo." Moreover, the British despatches to this government attempting to justify her procedure are certainly able and rest in no small degree on our own acts during the Civil War.

Britain guarded and guided our trade even with neutral countries through which goods could be sent to Germany; but we could hardly be asked to do more than register complaint in the hope of reserving grounds for reparation or maintaining the technical rules of law. Did we have ground for claiming damages? Perhaps; but our trade prospered tremendously and increased greatly even with the neutral countries adjacent to Germany.<sup>3</sup>

With the sinking of the *Lusitania*, May, 1915,—a shameful and premeditated crime—President Wilson wrote sharply to the German government asserting that we should defend our rights upon the high seas.

<sup>2</sup> Those that are still troubled about our entrance into the war should remember what was said by our commissioners who had been carrying on relief work in Belgium: "We wish to tell you," they said to President Wilson, "that there is no word in your historic statement that does not find a response in all our hearts. . . . Although we break with great regret our association with many German individuals, . . . there is no hope for democracy or liberalism unless the system which brought the world into this unfathomable misery can be stamped out once for all."

<sup>3</sup> While, in my judgment, Britain in some respects broke away from the restraints of international law or unduly extended precedents that appeared to justify her, the question is by no means an easy one, and I have heard an able international lawyer say that, if the subject were submitted to an impartial tribunal, he would be by no means certain of a decision in our behalf.

<sup>1</sup> If any one disbelieves the understatement above, he ought to read "Hurrah, and Hallelujah," a book largely made up of documents collected by a Dane, Professor J. P. Bang, of Copenhagen.

It seemed at that time our evident duty to maintain as much as possible of the shattered fabric of international law. Although some persons thought we ought to enter the war at once, the President was not at that time prepared to advise such action. He still clung to the belief or the hope that, by reiterated declaration of the fundamental principles of justice and humanity, Germany might be brought to a reasonable course of conduct and that some of the principles wrought out by past centuries might be preserved. What is the value of international law if it is to be cast to the winds when observance is inconvenient? After the Sussex affair in the summer of 1916 our relations with the German government were again greatly strained, but President Wilson succeeded in getting a promise that merchantmen should not be sunk without warning and without saving lives unless the vessel should resist or attempt escape. This promise was coupled with a condition that we should compel Great Britain to surrender what Berlin asserted to be an illegal blockade. Remembering, possibly, the net into which Napoleon enticed James Madison about 107 years ago, our government did not accept the condition, but warned Germany that her obligations were "individual not joint, absolute and not relative." We rested easier; but we now realize that this willingness to forego the sinking of peaceful vessels and the taking of lives can be accounted for by the fact that the old U-boats were being destroyed and the Teutonic powers did not then have in readiness the large and improved monsters of the deep with which to carry on the work of destruction. This work broke out with some violence late in 1916, and, with the announcement that no warning would be given when ships were sunk within a war zone, cutting off nearly the whole coast of Western Europe, President Wilson sent the German ambassador home and war seemed inevitable. One of the astounding revelations of the political methods of the German foreign office was the announcement made by the Chancellor to the Reichstag and the German people, that President Wilson had broken off diplomatic relations abruptly, although the step was taken eighteen months or more after the exchange of despatches on the Lusitania crime, and half a year after the exchange of notes about the Sussex.

So far we have given only a meagre outline of the story and told it ineffectively, for not even in many words can one sketch the growing uneasiness and distrust, the sense of despair, or the conflict between despair and hope. Was the world falling? Was civilization being wrecked in the whirlwind of barbaric passion? Had Germany already destroyed civilization by bringing the world to see that there could be no faith between nations, and that at any juncture, on the spurious plea of necessity, frightful wrong could be committed? If this war ended in German victory, a victory won by years of devoted preparation, a victory won by submarines and zeppelins and poisonous gases and deportation of men, women, and children to work in the fields and factories of the conquering country, what was before the

world? German victory appeared to mean the success of ruthlessness, of conquest by military preparation; it meant the enthronement of might; and it meant that we must henceforward live in a world of struggle—we and our children after us.

Why did President Wilson, after long effort to maintain neutrality and even hasten the coming of peace, finally advocate war? Before attempting to answer this question, let us recall the President's efforts to bring the conflicting nations to a statement of their terms, and to hold out to the world the conception of the establishment of permanent peace. The President's message on this subject came out almost simultaneously with Germany's proposal in which she suggested peace on the basis of an assumed victory for her army. Such a peace the allied nations could not accept without accepting militarism, without losing the all important objects for which millions of men had already given their lives, and probably most of us here in America believe that such proposals were put forth chiefly to make the German people believe that the Allies were the aggressors and must bear the odium of further conflict. When the President called on the warring nations to state their terms of peace, possibly he still cherished the hope that, if terms were frankly stated, negotiations might actually be begun; almost certainly he desired such open statement as would show to the world at large the real essence of the conflict and also show that we were not ready to enter the struggle until we had made every possible effort to bring peace. The President's appeal produced no very tangible results, although the Allied Powers stated their desires and purposes with considerable definiteness, and these terms did not on the whole appear to us unreasonable or unworthy.

All through this time the President and all thinking Americans were interested chiefly in the maintenance of civilization, and they looked forward not merely to victory or to acquisition of territory by one or another nation, but to the foundation of a lasting peace by the establishment of principles of justice and reason. We found that we could not paint in too dark colors the future of the world if we are all to remain under the pall of fear and suspicion and under the overwhelming burden of armament; and thus we came to see that without America's entrance into this war there was little hope for relief from the crushing weight of war and the almost equally burdensome weight of ever-increasing armed preparation. Never, it appeared, in the long history of mankind, was there such a fearful alternative; never a louder call for duty. America, without hope of profit, with no mean or subterranean purpose, must herself fight to maintain the principles of civilization and for the hope of lasting peace and propriety between nations. This growing belief that we must fight for peace, only gradually conquered most of us; for we had long believed that American influence for peace was to come from remaining peaceful; and for this principle, we may still maintain, there is much to be said. The creative forces of the world, we may still remind ourselves, have sprung from character. America, by her

successes in popular government, by a reasonable amount of respect for herself, has helped to build up the democratic spirit and the democratic power from Peking to Petrograd and from London to Quebec and Melbourne.

This, I say, we believe. But several things showed us that this just idealism is for the present impracticable. (1) German philosophy scouts and flouts the notion that a state must not use its power to dash down opposition. (2) German success would mean the victory of *Machtpolitik*—a victory for the very forces which pacific idealism decries. (3) If we expected to bring into the world an appreciation of rights and duties, if we hoped for influence in the adjustment of world affairs, if we wished to see a world we could live in, it was necessary in time of trouble to do our part. The President had striven not only for our rights, but for the maintenance of law. Under much harsh criticism at home he went to the very limits of proposals; he offered his assistance; he announced that there was such a thing as being "too proud to fight;" he spoke of "peace without victory;" he hoped that the war could be settled in such a way that the nations after the war could live without hatred; he insisted that the world must be based on an organization, not for war, but for peace and good neighborhood. But strive or struggle as he might, it became daily more apparent that we should have little or nothing to say after the war, if we, unwilling to act now, called upon the nations to enter into a league of peace or summoned them to the establishment of a new world order. If we held back, contenting ourselves with verbal threats and feline coaxings, we should not have a single friend in the wide world unsuspecting of our motives.

Thus far I have said little about the actual attacks on American rights and property. It is not necessary to say much, though they reached into the intolerable. Nor do I wish to dwell on affronts to American honor, for I do not highly value the code of the duelist. We can well remember, even in international affairs, that no one but one's self can stain one's honor, and that no nation can smirch another nation's spirit. We were, as I have said, confronted by a world situation in which we must play a strong, manly and honorable part. We despaired of a world in which millions of people could be thrown into war; millions of young men could be buried in trenches on the battlefield or left to rot under the festering sun of France or Poland; millions of children could be beggared or stricken by disease, because an emperor and secret government had willed it so, or because nations could not learn the simple lessons of decent intercourse. What untold anguish might have been saved, had the impetuous, sword-proud William consented to discussion as Britain pleadingly asked him to do during the last days of July, 1914!

In his war message, April 2, President Wilson announced that the American people felt no hostility to the German people, but that we could deal no longer with an ambitious, autocratic government which cast

a nation into war with no apparent hesitation and without discussing their wishes. We are told, even in these days, that there is no distinction between the people and the government of Germany and that to assert such dualism is to disregard the most evident fact. Certainly the great masses of the people have sacrificed their lives for the Fatherland, and yet one of the most whimsical products of this war is that some men here in America should be asserting the unqualified serenity of the political atmosphere of Berlin just when William announced that this war had taught him the faithfulness and reliability of the common people and that political changes must come, and when Hollweg told the junkers that their day of domination is nearing its end. William has been taught something by the war! Did he have to see a million Germans slaughtered, did he have to hear the cries of the widows and the fatherless, did he have to see blinded men learning their letters and crippled boys creeping along the streets of Berlin, before he could learn that the people could be trusted? Every incident in Germany in the last six weeks has demonstrated the weakness, not to say the criminality, of the imperial political regime. It now seems almost inevitable that if militarism is discredited by defeat, ministerial responsibility will be established in the empire, and William before long will be occupying that position of innocuous desuetude known as the kingship of a constitutional monarchy.

"Still," some person will say, "Germany is not what Russia was. To class Russia with its cruel, cheap, mercenary bureaucracy and Germany together as autocracies is to do violence to patent facts." I shall not seek to show how nearly the governmental system of the empire approaches in reality the autocratic type and how largely the responsibility for all imperial acts rests in the hands of the Prussian king and a body of irreconcilable aristocrats. Of this much could be said, but we can omit all discussion of the quasi-representative institutions of the empire. The trouble is deeper than mere forms of government; for the circle that shaped the policy of the state lived—this at least must be said—within a wall of psychological superiority and inculcated obedience as the great end of being. Every effort was made even to convince the German people of their exclusive and seclusive superiority, and William himself, a "king by the grace of God," was not able to see what a tragic, pathetic and humorous figure he made in the modern world of modern men. The whole psychological situation produced a dislocation of realities and a distortion of living truths.

The present war throws us into actual, if not formal alliance with Great Britain and France. We have, I think, no real or fancied interest in mere territorial readjustment which would add to the power of either of these nations, but we are justified in having confidence in the democracy of France and the liberal forces of Great Britain. Our sympathy for France ought to teach us a great lesson. It shows

us that republics are not ungrateful and that, after the lapse of one hundred and forty years, despite quarrels and disputes with the French government, we are still bound down by sentimental ties of gratitude to France. We have come to see the undying strength of friendship between the masses of men and are given new hope that democracies, if they are willing to think, cannot make war upon one another impetuously and in hatred. For England we still cherish, unfortunately, some of the old grievances that have been carried down, decade by decade, and taught through our school books to each succeeding generation. We have not been properly taught to see that our own revolution was an English revolution, in which Englishmen of this side of the ocean were striving for the development and maintenance of liberty, and that that war, too, was a war against an arrogant leaden-headed aristocracy. Misunderstanding of Britain comes from the failure to appreciate the development of liberalism in her government, until she stands forth to-day as a great representative of democracy and of belief in the power and will of the common people.

To lose sight of England's transformation, in which we have had a great part, is to lose sight of one of the most momentous developments of the last hundred years. Can we not forget crazy old George III and Lord North and the rest of his tribe, and remember the men of the middle century, the creators of modern British liberalism—Cobden, Bright and Gladstone, and a myriad of bold commoners—who battled successfully to destroy "the fortress of feudalism"? Can we not learn how deeply we are involved in the mighty structure of the British Empire as we find the lessons of our own Revolution and of our later history wrought into the policy of world-wide dominion? Can we not see that the greatest empire of all history has been built on the lessons of liberty which Britain learned from George Washington and Abraham Lincoln? Can we not see the tremendous force of democracy and individual liberty when we know that thousands upon thousands of colonials gave their lives ungrudgingly at Gallipoli and Ypres? Surely we must come to see that a democracy like France or a democratic empire like Great Britain runs our own risks, faces our own dangers, is subject to the faults and blunders which we know so well, and that we are not misled if the result of our efforts is to uphold a structure of imperial order based on the principles of justice, the strength of which has been so dramatically shown in the past three years. Sometimes one is asked ironically when, forsooth, England became the friend of America. The answer can be quickly given, and given with absolute historical accuracy. It was when the British Parliament in 1867 passed the second Reform Bill and England became a democracy—about two years and a half after the English aristocrats had fully seen their mistakes during our Civil War and had come to see that the greatest statesman the nineteenth century had as yet produced was not born in a manor house on an English countryside, but in a log-cabin in Kentucky. Like-

wise it can probably be safely said that France became our real friend, a nation with which we could work with open friendliness, when, with the downfall of Napoleon III, the republican institutions of France were finally and firmly established.

In the conduct of this war we must constantly remember that we have had hopes of rendering the world safe for democracy. With all our frailties, which we must openly confess, with all our wastefulness and with all our follies, this war has taught us, as nothing else could, that there is nothing upon which we can more safely rely than the plain sense of the plain people. Perhaps nothing shows this more conclusively than our reluctance and distaste for military conquest and our hesitation in making up our minds to fight. We may continually remember the words of Lord John Russell—and no one better than he had reason to know the truth: "All experience of human nature teaches us the fact, that men who possess a superiority, real or imaginary, over their fellow creatures, will abuse the advantages they enjoy." We must remember that we entered the war for peace, and we are offering a great sacrifice for a new world order. We believed that we could not get it by chiding Europe and refusing to do our part now, for Europe needed the assistance of an external power, disinterested and high-hearted. We may remember that we have covered a continent almost as large as the whole of Europe with self-governing commonwealths. We may remember the unselfish side of the Monroe Doctrine which we try to live up to as embodying a belief that nations may live their own lives; and with a mirthless smile we can call attention to Mexico, which we have allowed to wallow in revolutions and destroy American lives and property because we believe that only by trial can nations rise and that every nation is entitled to its own undisturbed revolution if there is hope for the struggling masses. And withal we must strive to save our own real selves, our own essential character; for what would it profit us if we fought the whole world and lost ourselves? We now know, if never before, that war is horrible and demoniacally ridiculous; that peaceful relations between nations have been endangered by intrigue, greed, false pride, covetousness and suspicion; that big armies do not make for peace, but beget arrogance; that human misconduct and discourtesy may make enemies, and that nothing is more vitiating than unmanly envy or fear of a prosperous neighbor; that democracy must be the basis of a sound political system, but it must be real, conscientious, intelligent, and open-minded, or we may plunge into cataclysmic anarchy. We may all take courage in remembering that the President of the United States has led us reluctantly and with unwilling feet into a war which we believe will help to establish democracy, humanity, and a sense of national duty without profit.

## How Far Should the Teaching of History and Civics Be Used as a Means of Encouraging Patriotism?\*

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What is patriotism? Love of country promptly comes the answer. But let us first of all note that love of country is a quality, virtue or passion which is common to all civilized peoples. Even the savage loves his haunts and will fight to defend them and his family. I witnessed a manifestation of patriotism in Germany at the opening of the present war that was at once both impressive and moving. It was a manifestation of loyalty and devotion to the Fatherland, that challenged the attention and the admiration of even those of us who were foreigners. While then patriotism is a quality that is common to all peoples, we must recognize that patriotism, if sincere and true, is exclusive; it knows no divided allegiance. It is a passion that leads to a desire to serve one's country. It manifests itself in various ways. It is a mistaken view that narrows patriotic service exclusively to the military and naval arms of the country. Civic services are frequently just as necessary and patriotic as military, and fortunately it is being recognized today, so that service in the shop, on the farm, in the mine and in other walks of life may be equally patriotic as that of a military character.

The need of a broad and comprehensive conception of patriotism is apparent. Webster's definition recognizes this, for he defines it as "Love and devotion to one's country, the spirit that, originating in love of country, prompts to obedience to its laws, to the support and defense of its existence, rights and institutions, and to the promotion of its welfare."

Lecky truly says, "All civic virtues, all the heroism and self-sacrifice of patriotism spring ultimately from the habit men acquire of regarding their country as a great organic whole, identifying themselves with its fortunes in the past, as in the present and looking forward anxiously to its future destinies."

It is clear, therefore, that the source and main-spring of patriotism lie in cultivating the sentiment and feeling of nationality. Hence to the end that an enlightened patriotism shall be widespread, it is necessary that the people generally and in particular the youth of the land should be so taught that they should acquire both a sense of the unity of the country and a feeling of pride and admiration for its traditions, ideals and achievements. One must be proud of his country's history and devoted to its ideals and institutions, if he is loyally to respond when called upon to maintain and defend them.

The danger of fostering an exaggerated and unwholesome idea of nationalism must be recognized and guarded against. Germany, for example, has been developing for over forty years an extremely narrow, intolerant and militaristic form of patriotism, one of its fundamental tenets being that it was its right and duty "to extend by force if necessary, its particular

brand of civilization to alien and therefore inferior peoples." Professor Morse Stephens, in his Presidential address before the American Historical Association in 1914,<sup>1</sup> from which these words are quoted, pointed out the fact that the great fundamental doctrine that characterizes the nineteenth century and its historical writings and teachings has been the belief in nationality and that so fervently was this belief held and promulgated that it has led to enmity between nations; that the historians and teachers of the nineteenth century had "their share in creating and maintaining the national fanaticism of the present," and that they "must bear their share of the responsibility of setting the nations of the world against each other." "National patriotism," he continues, "became the national creed. It filtered through the entire educational system of modern states. . . . However excellent patriotism may be in itself, it has had some startling effects when based upon nationalist histories. . . . Belief in the brotherhood of man has had no chance." Certainly a narrow, prejudiced, anti-foreign or sectional presentation of history should be avoided.

Great as has been the change in our history text books, there is still room for improvement. "The spread eagle" histories of the United States of the last generation, with their "brag and bluster," have largely been supplanted. No longer, I trust, are the American youths taught that an American army can give the enemy every advantage of training, equipment and strategy and still defeat him with ease. But some there are who are still living in the spirit of another age, who think that the day of "the minute men" has not passed, and that an adequate and efficient force of fighting men can be raised over night, as in the Revolution. An honest presentation of our military history is much to be desired. We want text books that are not afraid to face the actual facts and tell the truth; that shall cease to gloss over defeats or defects in our military campaign, as for example the failure of the militia in the War of 1812 and the inadequacy of the volunteer system in all our wars. Some texts have aided in the perpetuation of old errors and in fostering a feeling of false security in an inefficient and antiquated system. Fortunately, the influence of General Wood, General F. L. Huidekoper, author of "The Military Unpreparedness of the United States" and others has made itself felt in the recent legislation at Washington for the selective draft.

\* Presented at the meeting of the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland, Philadelphia, May 4, 1917.

<sup>1</sup> "American Historical Review," XXI, 225-238 in *passim*.



We also want text books that shall be free from foreign or sectional prejudice. Professor Morse Stephens, in the address from which I have quoted already, states that "Americans are taught from childhood to hate Britishers by the study of American history and not only the descendants of the men who made the Revolution, but every newly arrived immigrant child imbibes the hatred of Great Britain of to-day from the patriotic ceremonies of the public schools." An alumnus in a recent number of the *University of Pennsylvania Alumni Register*,<sup>2</sup> declares that "It is most unfortunate that our first glimpse of patriotism as little children is through the pages of absurd school histories. Nor is the misfortune diminished by the failure of the average teacher to interpret an unintelligent flag worship into an inspiration of vital moral significance. So our early environment creates for us an imaginary world of bloodthirsty enemies and in our souls an antipathy to foreigners, which leads us to apply to them such appellations as 'dagoes,' 'sheenies,' 'chinks,' or the infinity of contempt involved in 'Dutch.'"

The fault is not alone with the text book. The teacher of history too frequently is unenlightened and continues to present, for example, the history of the American Revolution from a provincial and partisan viewpoint. In spite of popular prejudice to the contrary, it is high time that we should cease to implant a spirit of hatred of England, which is sufficiently fostered in this country by various anti-British organizations. Let us teach that the American patriots in fighting for what they regarded as their inalienable rights were fighting for the rights of mankind in general. Lincoln gave expression to this thought in the speech which he delivered at Independence Hall on Washington's Birthday, 1861, when he called attention to the significant point that the Declaration of Independence proclaimed "liberty not alone to the people of this country but hope to all the world throughout all future time. It was that which gave promise that in due time the weights would be lifted from the shoulders of all men, and that all should have an equal chance." Modern Englishmen, indeed, have recognized that in fighting for their liberties Americans were fighting for the liberties of England and the world. Tennyson expresses this thought in his poem on England and America:—

"Strong Mother of a Lion-line,  
Be proud of these strong sons of thine  
Who wrenched their rights from thee."

Sectional history that still flourishes in this country should be superseded as it is a means of perpetuating old animosities and divisions among a people that should be united in mutual sympathy, regard and admiration. Yet more than half a century after the close of the civil war, many of the large publishers of text books on American history find it necessary to have different series of texts for the North and the South. Let us hope that the day will soon come when this will no longer be true, and we shall be one people

united by sentiment as well as by political geography and the constitution.

Passing from these general considerations, let us consider the practical phase of the topic, namely, what share shall the school system have in the making and training of citizens? At the outset we should recognize that in many cases the schools must do the entire work, owing to the absence of proper home and other influences and agencies. They must lay the foundations for an intelligent patriotism and an enlightened public opinion. The whole educational system, therefore, should be designed to the great end of making good citizens, but it is the especial province of the teachers of history and civics to train for citizenship. Everything that promotes good citizenship will contribute to patriotism, as the one comprehends the other.

Mr. Frederick Winsor, a Concord (Mass.) Headmaster, presented a very suggestive paper at the Congress of Constructive Patriotism held in Washington last January, to which I am indebted for some of the points I shall present. Mr. Winsor truly stated that "the most important obligation implied by citizenship in a democracy is service; service of the country in time of peace by an active participation in the political life of the community, state and nation; service in time of war, either as part of the armed forces or as part of the still larger organization of agriculture and industry which support the armed forces." The first duty of patriotic education is to teach this lesson that the citizen has duties as well as rights, and that the most important duty is service to others, to the family, the community, the State and the Nation. The efforts should be directed to create a sense of obligation to others and greatest of all to God and Country. The chief aim of our schools and colleges should be directed to prepare the youth for citizenship, so that they shall be ready and eager to fulfill all the duties which citizenship implies. They should be inspired by the principles of unselfish patriotism, so that their attitude should not be that so frequently found in some adults, whose inquiry is, "What can my country do for me," not "What can I do for my country."

Training in the history and the traditions of the country is particularly important in our public schools, owing to the large number of children of foreign birth or parentage in our cities, as in many instances, in the very nature of the case, that is the only opportunity for them to obtain the same. And there are many striking examples of the manner in which they respond to this influence, and frequently they show a much greater enthusiasm and loyalty than some of the native born, who have inherited all their advantages and who frequently fail to value them because everything has come to them without that sacrifice and labor that it has cost the immigrant and his children.

For a constructive program to this end, I can suggest in its main features nothing better than the curriculum and method that is being followed in some

<sup>2</sup> April, 1917, 502-503.

<sup>3</sup> "Proceedings of the Congress of Constructive Patriotism," Washington, D. C., January 25-27, 1917, 248.



of our public schools, for example in Philadelphia, in history and particularly the new course in community civics. In history the program lays emphasis on biography in the lower grades. There is ample material in American history for teaching patriotism through the examples of men and women who have served their country in both times of war and of peace—by devoting their energy, talents, time, fortune, and even life to the unselfish service of their fellow men. Such pictures and tales of heroism and faithful service will make an ineffaceable impression on the young pupil's mind and will awaken a desire to render similar service when the opportunity offers. Indeed, biography is so valuable in stimulating patriotism that I would constantly make provision for it as well in the higher grades of the school.

In the narrative history that comes in the higher grades, the teaching of history should be permeated with the patriotic spirit. Emphasis should be placed on our wonderful heritage, the result of long centuries of stress and struggle. In American history, opportunity is especially afforded to trace the growth of the movement for political independence, national unity and democracy. The teacher can point out that American citizenship at the time the Constitution was adopted did not comprehend what it does to-day. That although the Declaration of Independence declared that "all men are created equal and have been endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights, among which are life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness," these principles were far from being carried out in actual practice. It was only gradually, after long struggles and strenuous opposition, that one by one they were fully secured. Thus religious toleration, the extension of the suffrage, free public education itself, the establishment of freedom for all, the achievement of democracy and national unity, one by one were realized, and are now the common heritage of all citizens.

Such a presentation of the subject should be designed to emphasize the value of citizenship, and the importance and duty that these democratic institutions should be preserved and strengthened. Whenever possible, pilgrimages to historic sites should be made. We here in the east are particularly fortunate in this respect. Let us make more of our opportunities to vitalize and make real to our pupils past events by visits to historic places.

The teaching of the history of Europe is also important not only for itself but also to broaden their horizon, afford a basis for comparison and an antidote to a narrow and provincial spirit, to enlarge their sympathies and to give them an interest in mankind that they may realize that above "all nations is humanity," thus implanting the great truth which lies at the foundation of modern society, that of the community of nations.

"For mankind are one in spirit, and one instinct bears along,

Round the earth's electric circle the swift flash of right or wrong.

Whether conscious or unconscious, yet humanity's vast frame

Through its ocean-sundered fibres feels the gush of joy or shame

In the gain or loss of one race all the rest have equal claim."

The recognition of this interdependence breeds a sense of common interests and of the brotherhood of man and is a corrective to the blatant and jingoistic type of nationalism.

Possibly greater opportunity for training in good citizenship and hence true patriotism is afforded through the proper teaching of civics, or as it is now called "Community Civics." The new program of civic training which recently has been inaugurated in the public schools of Philadelphia, as described in the new syllabus and as presented in Dr. Barnard's article in the "Annals," appears to me so admirable that I would commend its general acceptance.<sup>4</sup> This program has three notable features; *first*, it begins the study in the lowest grades and continues it throughout the eight years of the elementary school, as well as in at least one year of the high school. *Secondly*, one of its unique and most commendable features is its adaptation of the French system of formal instruction in morals, by introducing in the early years instruction in the fundamental civic virtues, such as obedience, helpfulness, courtesy, punctuality and the like, in all of which as is generally recognized the average American child is sadly deficient. This instruction is premised on the idea that "underlying good citizenship is good morality," and that "the practice of the civic virtues is the basis for all acts of good citizens," example being taken from the social group with which the child is familiar, the family, the school, the local community and the various individuals that serve it. Here the *third* feature of the course is met with. "From this point on," as the syllabus states, "a dominant note of the course is service. A most important element of good citizenship is faithful, willing, efficient service."

Next the governmental side of civic instruction is followed in the higher grades with a study of the various public and private agencies of community welfare, supplemented by trips to see some of these agencies and governmental departments at work. The two objects to be kept in mind throughout this course, the syllabus states, are "first, the development of ideals of good citizenship; and, secondly, training in such habits of right social conduct as will make the individual a desirable member of the various communities to which he belongs." In such a course the opportunity is afforded of inculcating ideals of justice, liberty, and those other moral virtues that make for good citizenship, and to make it evident that patriotism is synonymous with good citizenship. If instruction of this character becomes general, may we not hope in the future for a great quickening in the interest of the citizen in civic affairs of the community,

<sup>4</sup> Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, September, 1916.

state and nation which will make for a higher type of patriotism, and which will give an impetus to civic righteousness throughout the land? Let us bear in mind, as some one has said, that "patriotism is not an end but a means to the end which is universal righteousness."

The very instinct of self-preservation should lead us as a people to awaken to the importance, aye, the absolute necessity of preparation for good citizenship. Further, our duty to mankind imperiously demands it. Freedom and democracy are on trial before the world. It is our task as well as our privilege to demonstrate the permanent success of a Democratic Republic. If the effort here to maintain popular government fails, it may be that the failure will be final and irretrievable.

Professor Arlo Bates has expressed this thought in his matchless poem "America."<sup>5</sup>

"Here has the battle its last vantage ground;  
Here all is won, or here must all be lost,  
Here freedom's trumpets one last rally sound;  
Here to the breeze its blood-stained flag is tossed.  
America, last hope of man and truth,  
Thy name must through all coming ages be  
The badge unspeakable of shame and ruth,  
Or glorious pledge that man through truth is free.  
This is thy destiny! the choice is thine  
To lead all nations and outshine them all;  
But if thou failest, deeper shame is thine,  
And none shall spare to mock thee in thy fall."

In what respect should the war influence the teaching of patriotism? Those of you who have read Dr. McKinley's paper on the effect of the war on teaching in European countries<sup>6</sup> are familiar with the fact that it has affected not only the teaching of history, but nearly all subjects in the curriculum, and doubtless if the war continues for some time, it will have a somewhat similar effect here. In England an editorial in the "New Statesman" objected to using the war to teach patriotism. It said in part, "To love it [one's country] is as natural as to be happy. To serve it as natural—and as difficult—as to be honest or gentle or agreeable and virtuous. But to schoolmaster small boys and girls into this love and service is almost as superfluous as to hector them into loving a perfect mother, or to lecture them into a taste for honey or wild strawberries."

But an opposite point of view has been gradually growing in favor there. A number of prominent statesmen and men of letters have written articles calling attention to the importance of England's taking proper steps to train the children of the masses in the duties of patriotism and in the lessons of the war. An interesting volume by Stephen Paget entitled, "Essays for Boys and Girls: A First Guide towards the Study of the War,"<sup>7</sup> which has recently reached

this country shows what is being done in this direction.<sup>8</sup>

I am fully persuaded that it is the duty of the teacher of history and civics to seize the wonderful opportunity afforded by the war to aid in promoting an intelligent and patriotic public opinion in support of the government in these critical times. Let the teachers explain to the pupils why we are at war, and what they can do to help. Call attention to the reasons presented by the President in his notable message—and emphasize "our objects" in the war which have been stated so clearly by him, quoting those remarkable and eloquent passages in which he presents our aims and ideals. Let them quote and explain such declarations as these, "It is to vindicate the principles of peace and justice in the life of the world against selfish and autocratic power;" and again those significant phrases when he declares, "The world must be made safe for democracy;" and "Its peace must be planted upon the tested foundations of political liberty." Thus we can point out that the issue is one between democracy and autocracy, between the rule of the people and the rule of the autocrat, that it is liberty arrayed against absolutism and reaction; that the United States is championing "the rights and liberties of small nations," the rights of self-government, and is fighting "to establish the peace and safety of all nations and make the world itself at last free."

Let the teacher also call attention to the fact that we have no selfish ends to serve, for the President disclaims all desire for the spoils of war when he proclaimed, "We desire no conquests, no dominions, no indemnity for ourselves, no material compensation for the sacrifices we shall freely make." "To such a task we can dedicate our lives and our fortunes, everything that we are and everything that we have." We should call attention to the fact that for "the first time in history a nation has gone to war for a purely ideal end." We should point out that instead of accepting "Peace at any price," we have substituted "Righteousness at any cost," as Dr. Manning has happily phrased it.

Indeed, as it has been so truly said by Dr. Kirchway, "We have entered upon the war with the loftiest ideals that ever inspired a nation in arms." God grant that we remain true to them! Let us, as teachers responding to the call of liberty and humanity, devote our talents to the service of a cause so noble and unselfish as the one in which we are now embarked. May the same spirit of loyalty to country and devotion to those high ideals for which our forefathers sacrificed, fought and died, namely, liberty, righteousness and justice, inspire us.

But while we are striving for justice and democracy abroad, let us see to it that we conserve and strengthen both at home. The true patriot should be on guard against the dangers that threaten our land and its institutions. How are these endangered? Not only

<sup>5</sup> E. C. Stedman, "An American Anthology," 533.

<sup>6</sup> HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE, VIII, pp. 143-147 (May, 1917).

<sup>7</sup> Macmillan Company, London, 1915.

<sup>8</sup> See page 181 of this issue of the MAGAZINE.

from the recognized enemy from without, but also from those insidious foes from within. We cannot close our eyes to some of the evils that threaten the land, such as abuses in public office, the presence of brazen-faced wrong in the marts of trade, the worship of the almighty dollar instead of the Almighty Ruler of the universe, the friction and increasing antagonism between capital and labor, the disregard for law, the danger which threatens family life, the growing lack of democracy in our social life, "our unpardonable fault of wastefulness and extravagance," the problem of Americanizing the hundreds of thousands of immigrants that have entered our ports. In the settling of these and other questions, ample opportunity will be presented for the exercise of true patriotism. Fidelity to civic duty will oftentimes demand as great courage, self-sacrifice, zeal and loyal devotion as that exhibited by the heroes of past wars or the present conflict. Never was the battlefield of government for the people more deeply in need of loyal soldiers than to-day and never were the opportunities for glorious

achievement brighter than in the present hour. Let each of us as patriots remain true to the highest ideals and play our part like true men and women, for it is such that constitute the real strength of the State. This thought is expressed in the lines of Sir William Jones, the famous English scholar and poet of more than a century ago.

"What constitutes a State?

Not high raised battlement or labored mound,  
Thick wall or moated gate;  
Nor cities proud with spires and turrets crowned;  
Nor bays and broad armed ports,  
Where, laughing at the storm, rich navies ride;  
Nor starred and spangled courts,  
Where low browed baseness wafts perfume to pride.  
No;—men, high-minded men,

Men who their duties know,  
But know their rights, and knowing, dare maintain;  
Prevent the long-aimed blow,  
And crush the tyrant, while they rend their chain:  
These constitute a State."

## The Passing of Splendid Isolation<sup>1</sup>

BY ARTHUR P. SCOTT, PH.D., UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO.

The phrase "splendid isolation" was used to describe the position of Great Britain in international affairs during the last half of the nineteenth century; but it so exactly describes the conscious national policy of the United States for the first century of our independence that one feels justified in borrowing it.

When President Wilson declared (in his Cincinnati speech of Oct. 26, 1916) that "This is the last war . . . that involves the world that the United States can keep out of," most of those who had studied the sweep of world affairs during the last generation agreed with him. But our actual entrance into this present war has come to many as something of a surprise. We are asking ourselves why this has come about. Is it the fault of blundering diplomacy, or of military unpreparedness which caused our warnings to be despised, or of an unreasonable insistence on rights of travel on the high seas which we might better have yielded, under protest, as we acquiesced in the British blockade? Or is it the result of great forces largely beyond our control? I believe that, in the main the latter is a truer explanation.

In any large perspective of history, the development of the United States constitutes only one chapter in the great movement we call the Expansion of Europe. That movement, which began on a large scale with the discoveries of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, has resulted in the transplanting of European populations to every temperate quarter of the globe, of an even wider extension of European political control, and of a still greater diffusion of

European ideas, ideals, and institutions. Three fifths of the land surface of the globe is now under the flag of European nations, or of nations of European stock; and those peoples who remain independent, such as China, Japan, Persia, and Turkey, have been more or less deeply affected by European culture, and are directly and vitally concerned with the course of events in Europe. In such a situation, a distinction between the affairs of Europe and the concerns of mankind becomes increasingly difficult to maintain.

The independent nations of North and South America, including the United States, owe their discovery, colonization, and early development to Europe. In language, institutions and fundamental ideas they are still European. We ourselves were colonies of England for a longer period than we have been independent. During that colonial period, our forefathers knew what it was to be directly involved in the affairs of Europe. Four times between 1689 and 1768 they were dragged into hostilities because England was at war on the continent. It is true that England's participation was in large part due to her world-wide colonial and commercial rivalry with France. It is also true that the colonists were directly interested in the struggle with the French for the possession of the Mississippi valley. But after England with their help, had finally driven France from North America, the colonists lost interest in European quarrels. During the Revolutionary War we were, of course, glad of help from France, Spain and Holland; but once we became independent, we drew a deep breath of relief, and resolved to keep as free as possible from the internal affairs of Europe. We knew by long experience what it meant to be involved in

<sup>1</sup> A public lecture delivered at the University of Chicago, April 27, 1917.

European disputes about which we knew little and cared less, and we wished to have nothing more to do with the dynastic struggles and court intrigues of the Old World. Still further, we distrusted European interference in the New World. Jefferson, looking back over our early history, summed the whole matter up when he said in 1823, "Our first and fundamental maxim should be, never to entangle ourselves in the broils of Europe; our second, never to suffer Europe to intermeddle in cis-Atlantic affairs."

Our position during the French Revolution and the Napoleonic struggles was a difficult one, suggesting interesting parallels with the last three years. At home, pro-British and pro-French parties were berating Washington for remaining neutral. On the high seas, France and England were both interfering with what we regarded as our undoubted rights of trade and travel. In 1799 we engaged in a modified naval war with France. After that difficulty was in part arranged, we drifted on into the war of 1812 with Great Britain, a war primarily in defence of our rights as neutrals, and in vindication of our dignity as an independent state.

Meanwhile the colonies of Spain began to detach themselves from the control of the mother country, and to declare their independence, a process which the restored Spanish Bourbons could not arrest. In 1822 we recognized the independence of several of these colonies. Europe meantime was in the grip of reactionary forces, bitterly hostile to liberalism in all its forms. Austria, Prussia, Russia and later France with support at first from England, made a business of suppressing revolutions by force of arms wherever they appeared. In 1823 a liberal movement in Spain was crushed by French troops, acting as the agents of European reaction. Everyone expected that the next vindication of the principle of divine right would involve European aid to Spain in reconquering her rebellious colonies. England, already somewhat ashamed of her connection with earlier interventions, and (what was more to the point) greatly preferring an independent Spanish-America for commercial reasons, proposed to the United States a joint protest against intervention. On the insistence of John Quincy Adams, then Secretary of State, President Monroe chose instead to make a separate statement of American policy, declaring that any attempt on the part of the European powers to extend their "system" in the Western Hemisphere was dangerous to our peace and safety. At the same time we were apprehensive that Russia would extend her Alaskan settlements far to the south, and the President took the occasion to announce that "The American continents . . . are henceforth not to be considered as subjects for future colonization by European powers." The difficulty with Russia was soon adjusted, and as a matter of fact all real danger of European intervention in Latin America had already passed, owing to the determined opposition of England. But our attitude had been made clear, and our national policy, long foreshadowed, had been clearly formulated. By 1825, then, the two cardinal principles of American

policy had been settled. The first, our avoidance of entangling alliances or interference in European affairs, received its classic expression in Washington's Farewell Address. The second, opposition to European interference in the New World, became famous as the Monroe Doctrine.

It is obvious that underlying both these principles is the assumption that the two hemispheres constitute separate entities, capable of an existence largely independent of one another. The Atlantic has been regarded as a barrier, providentially setting us apart from the turmoils of Europe, in which we had been so long involved, and from which we so gladly became free. A century ago there was, however, another line of demarcation than that of geography, that of political institutions and ideals. The "political system" of the Old World, which was not to be extended here, stood for despotism, reaction, conservatism, divine right, for everything that we had fought against in the Revolution. When the colonies of Spain revolted and set up governments that were patterned after our own republic, we rejoiced at the triumph of those principles of freedom and self-government for which we ourselves stood. It was obviously to our interest that Europe should be kept from getting any firmer hold in North or South America. But mingled with concern for our own tranquillity was a generous and unselfish enthusiasm for republican institutions, and a glowing hope that the whole New World might become a great example of free government, where on a tremendous scale the inspiring ideals of the rights of man and the consent of the governed might be worked out to their fullest expression.

For three quarters of a century after Monroe we managed to maintain our early principles. While we never attempted to conceal our sympathies with movements in Europe intended to promote the cause of human freedom, we did not actually intervene. The earlier phases of the French Revolution, and the struggles of Poles, Greeks and Hungarians for freedom were applauded; the efforts of Germans and Italians to secure unification and freedom from foreign influence in the main met our approval. On the other hand, massacres of Armenians in Turkey or of Jews in Russia or the extinction of local liberties in Finland were unpopular with us; but our approval or disapproval did not go beyond unofficial expression of opinions. We signed the Hague Conventions with the reservation that nothing was to require us to depart from our "traditional policy of not intruding upon, interfering with, or entangling ourself in the political questions of policy or internal administration of any foreign state," or to relinquish our "traditional attitude toward purely American questions." In 1906 we took an important part in the Algeiras Conference to settle the affairs of Morocco; but we signed the agreement "without assuming obligation or responsibility for the enforcement thereof."

On the Western Continents, our policy developed along the general lines enunciated by Monroe. Since we have never regarded the Monroe Doctrine as

binding our own hands, we followed out our "manifest destiny," extending our original boundaries to the Gulf of Mexico and the Pacific, by purchase, by conquest, and by negotiation. As to European influence, we have lapsed only occasionally from our original policy, as when by the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty we admitted England to joint control of an Isthmian Canal. These lapses, however, were soon regretted and ultimately made good. In the main, Europe, though not giving formal assent to the Doctrine, has in practice recognized the limitations imposed by it. At the close of our Civil War, after a significant movement of troops to Texas, we warned the French to leave Mexico. In 1895 by a threat of war we induced England to arbitrate a boundary dispute with Venezuela. In 1902 Germany planned to occupy Venezuelan territory as a punitive measure, assuring us that it would only be "temporarily." Again arbitration was forced by President Roosevelt's quiet intimation to the Kaiser that our navy was ready to prevent such a move by force if necessary.

In the course of time the underlying principles of the Monroe Doctrine have been expanded to meet new circumstances. It is understood, for instance, that the principles originally framed to prevent European aggression apply to Asiatic powers as well. Rumors that Japan was trying to acquire a coaling station on the coast of Mexico led, in 1912, to a resolution by the Senate to the effect that no foreign power might acquire, directly or indirectly, any harbor of strategic importance. Other perplexing questions have been raised by developments in Latin-America. Some of our sister Republics, notably Argentine, Brazil and Chili, have developed until a protecting attitude on our part is no longer necessary or even welcome. It is not impossible that these powers some day may become joint guarantors with us of the policy "America for the Americans." On the other hand, disorder and financial irresponsibility in other States are constantly embroiling them, and therefore the United States, with European powers. We have denied that our policy requires us to protect South American States from merited punishment; but while we grudgingly admit the right of waging war on an American Republic, we insist that it shall not be fought on American soil, which is about as satisfactory to an exasperated European power as permission to hang one's clothes on a hickory limb without going near the water. This has been diplomatically pointed out to us, but we have not admitted that a refusal to allow Europe to intervene to protect European lives and property obligates us to step in and do so. Mexico is a case in point. By implication, however, and on a small scale we have assumed some responsibility. Cuba, Panama, San Domingo, Haiti and Nicaragua are virtually protectorates of the United States, and the danger of their embroiling us with Europe is thereby minimized.

Meanwhile, during the decades in which we have been primarily occupied with our own affairs, great changes have been taking place in the world at large, changes which by the opening of the twentieth cen-

tury placed the United States in a new situation with regard to world affairs, and demanded a re-examination and even a modification of our traditional policies. As we have seen, the whole New World owes its existence to, and in a large sense is a part of, the expansion of Europe. But the expansion of Europe did not end with the eighteenth century. On the contrary the nineteenth century saw a deepening and widening of the movement with results of incalculable importance for the future of the whole human race. Politically it saw England complete the conquest of India and Burma, occupy Australia, and New Zealand, and secure an enormous territory in various parts of Africa. It saw Russia expanding southward from Siberia on the Pacific coast and in Central Asia. France built up a new colonial empire of four million square miles in Africa, and Asia. Reunited Germany at a blow planted the German flag over a million square miles of African and far Eastern territory. Even Italy and Belgium became overlords of lands and peoples outside Europe. In all this we were largely unconcerned. But more widely even than European political control went the expansion of commerce, institutions, and the whole machinery of European life as it had been refashioned by the industrial revolution. China was opened to foreign trade, and in this movement we ourselves took part, though we seldom resorted to threats and force. The opening of Japan to western intercourse, however, was due directly to us. We were the ones who gave the Japanese the choice of opening their doors or having the doors blown off the hinges by Commodore Perry's fleet.

The nineteenth century saw a vast increase in manufactured goods seeking non-European markets, a greater demand for the products of the tropics, an out-flow of surplus European population seeking new homes, and an accumulation of European capital seeking opportunities for investment in the business of developing the enormous resources of Asia and Africa. At the same time railways and steamship lines, cable and telegraph lines, postal service and wireless stations all brought the different parts of the world constantly closer and closer together. The oceans ceased to be formidable barriers and became highways which connected nations instead of separating them. In this mighty movement the United States gradually came to take a larger and larger part. Although our merchant marine declined, our foreign commerce grew tremendously until along with Germany we became formidable rivals of England in the markets of the world. Our commercial travellers went forth to seek orders; our missionaries went to the ends of the earth to make converts; and our tourists scribbled their names on the world's greatest monuments, from the pyramids of Egypt to the great wall of China.

It was not until the time of the Spanish War that we began to realize the changes that had taken place in the world, or the extent to which we had become involved in the sweep of world movements. We went into the Spanish War over what seemed a nearby issue—the liberation of Cuba from oppression.

We emerged from the war a World Power, with colonial possessions across the Pacific. To many if not most Americans this transition from the Western to the Eastern Hemisphere was surprising and even unwelcome. The man on the street did not know whether a Filipino was a tropical fruit or a new five-cent cigar. As we look back, however, we can see that American interest in the Pacific Ocean and beyond was inevitable. The growth of our commerce and the knitting together of East and West by a thousand strands of increasingly intimate intercourse of all kinds meant that whether we liked it or not, we had to take an interest and a part in affairs beyond this hemisphere. Renouncing Imperialism and granting independence to the Filipinos would not materially alter the situation. We should continue to be morally responsible for protecting them, and besides, they constitute only one aspect of our interest in world affairs.

Not only have the geographic considerations of Monroe's day been modified by the development of rapid means of communication, but the political distinctions between the Western Hemisphere and the rest of the world have been largely obliterated. Many of the South American "Republics" turned out, in spite of nominally republican institutions, to be disorderly despotisms. On the other hand, England and France have become democracies, quite as liberal as ourselves, and the remaining countries of Europe are now more or less limited constitutional monarchies. This does not mean that we must abandon the Monroe Doctrine. Because we have acquired an interest in world affairs or because part of Europe has become liberal, it does not follow that we need allow the rest of the world to interfere unduly in western affairs. Nor are we less anxious than ever to keep out of purely European matters.

But what has all this to do with Germany and our part in the world war? It means that the United States is now a world power, in the sense that it has important and legitimate interests in every part of the world. It means that the nations of the world are so bound together that a war is no longer a local disaster but a world calamity. It means that the stopping of war is not the right and the duty of some nations but of *all* nations. Nations no longer live in sound-proof and water-tight compartments. Germany's contention that the quarrel between Austria and Serbia was a purely local matter was a tragic absurdity.

Let me remind you that Washington never supposed that we could or should avoid all participation in European wars. We were not to be dragged in against our will by entangling alliances. But we were to be free, he said, to choose peace or war as our interest guided by justice, should counsel. Our interests, our sense of justice: surely we are not wrong in thinking that they required our choice of war. As a world power, whose peaceful development is bound up with international trade, we are inevitably interested in maintaining the hard-won principles of international law. As the greatest of democracies,

we are vitally concerned in making the world safe for democracy.

We look forward to some sort of league to enforce peace after the present struggle. There is *now* a league to enforce peace, and its leading members have been England, France, and Russia. And what are they fighting for? What but the principles on which our own government is founded, the right of each people to a government deriving its just powers from the consent of the governed. The right of each nation to go its way in peace, without fearing the fate of Belgium and Serbia, or that of the passengers of the Lusitania. Where should we stand but shoulder to shoulder with those who are daily giving their lives that popular government shall not perish from the earth? And against us is what? Prussian militarism. John Hay, who knew German diplomacy at first hand, said it was "always brutal, but seldom silly;" and again, "Germany is acting badly—and cannot help bullying and swaggering. It is their nature. . ." Wherever we have crossed their path—in Samoa, in the Philippines in 1898, in the Venezuela matter, at Algenciras, Germany has bullied and swaggered. Hand in hand with Prussia are the German and Magyar groups of Austria-Hungary whose power is founded on the oppression of Slavic groups within their borders, dragging in their train misguided Bulgaria, and the unspeakable Turk, his hands reeking with the blood of half a million Armenians, butchered without a word of reproof from the War Lords of Berlin. What are we fighting for? Not to obliterate Germany: not to force democracy upon Germany—that would be resorting to Germany's own tactics. If the Germans want an autocracy, for *themselves*, let them have it. But we must demonstrate to Germany, by the only type of argument which seems to appeal to her, that she cannot and shall not impose her will and her "Kultur" on the rest of the world. I hope and believe that when the German people realize the tragic blunders of their leaders they will take the matter of reform into their own hands. Meantime, the one way to make Germany a tolerable member of the community of nations is to pound home the elementary lessons that the way of the transgressor is hard and that honesty is the best policy. This is a World War; we are a World Power; and we cannot honorably shirk the task of helping to forge a new World organization.

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Abundant references have been made during the world war to the Holy Writ as supporting righteous war or teaching principles of peace. Shakespeare, too, is now being quoted on all sides, as instance the following from Henry V:

"For peace itself should not so dull a kingdom,  
Though war nor no known quarrel were in question,  
But that defences, musters, preparations,  
Should be maintained, assembled and collected,  
As were a war in expectation."

# Brief List of Books Upon Recent European History

Prepared for the *Magazine* by Professor Charles D. Hazen,  
Columbia University

The following list of books makes, of course, no pretension to be a systematic or comprehensive bibliography of recent European history. It is merely a selection of a few titles made in the hope that they may be useful to some as an introduction to a subject which has become of immediate and deep concern to all Americans. It will henceforth be incumbent upon all who take their citizenship seriously to seek to be informed in regard to European problems and conditions. The importance of as extensive a knowledge of modern European history as possible for every citizen is obvious and needs no argument.

On the general background of the nineteenth century there are several works adapted to various needs:

Robinson, J. H., and Beard, C. A., "The Development of Modern Europe," Vol. II.

Hayes, Carlton J. H., "A Political and Social History of Modern Europe," Vol. II.

Hazen, Charles D., "Europe Since 1815."

Hazen, Charles D., "Modern European History."

Kirkpatrick, F. A., "Lectures on the History of the Nineteenth Century."

Rose, J. H., "The Development of European Nations, 1870-1914."

Fyffe, C. A., "History of Modern Europe."

The first four of these volumes contain bibliographical references opening up the general field quite extensively. Moreover such is the paucity of material in English on several of the smaller countries, like the Balkan States, that the accounts given in these books will probably be found to be the most serviceable.

## ON GERMANY:

Henderson, E. F., "A Short History of Germany," latest edition, Vol. II.

Schevill, Ferdinand, "The Making of Modern Germany."

Marriott, J. A. R., and Robertson, C. G., "The Evolution of Prussia."

Priest, G. M., "Germany Since 1740."

Smith, Munro, "Bismarck and German History."

Headlam, J. W., "Bismarck."

Dawson, W. H., "Evolution of Modern Germany."

Fife, R. H., "The German Empire between Two Wars."

Tower, C., "Germany of To-day."

Schmitt, B., "England and Germany."

## ON FRANCE:

Wright, C. H. C., "The History of the Third French Republic."

Fisher, H. A. L., "The Republican Tradition in Europe."

Atkinson, F. M., "Memoirs of M. Thiers."

Guérard, A. L., "French Civilization in the Nineteenth Century."

Brownell, W. C., "French Traits."

Wendell, B., "The France of To-day."

Tardieu, Andre, "France and the Alliances."

Bracq, J. C., "France Under the Republic"

George, W. L., "France in the Twentieth Century."

Barclay, T., "Thirty Years. Anglo-French Reminiscences (1876-1906)."

Marzials, P. B., "Life of Gambetta."

Lawton, Frederick, "The Third French Republic."

Anderson, F. M., "Constitutions and Documents."

## ON GREAT BRITAIN:

Oman, C. M., "England in the Nineteenth Century."

Slater, G., "The Making of Modern England."

Marriott, J. A. R., "England Since Waterloo."

Bright, J. F., "History of England," Vols. IV and V.

Gretton, R. H., "A Modern History of the English People."

Lee, Sidney, "Queen Victoria; a Biography."

Moran, T. F., "The Theory and Practice of the English Government."

Hayes, Carlton J. H., "British Social Politics."

Dubois, L. P., "Contemporary Ireland."

Ashley, W. J., "British Dominions; their Present Commercial and Industrial Condition."

Pollard, A. F., "The British Empire; its Past, its Present and its Future."

## ON RUSSIA:

Skrine, F. H., "Expansion of Russia."

Bariny, M., "The Russian People."

Kennan, George, "Siberia and the Exile System."

Milyoukov, Paul, "Russia and Its Crisis."

Pares, B., "Russia and Reform."

Vinogradoff, Paul, "Self-Government in Russia."

Wiener, L., "An Interpretation of the Russian People."

Wallace, D. M., "Russia."

Orris, "Brief History of Poland."

Phillips, W. A., "Poland."

## ON ITALY:

Marriott, J. A. R., "Makers of Modern Italy."

Cesaresco, Evelyn M., "Cavour."

Holland, R. S., "Builders of United Italy."

King, Bolton, and Okey, Thomas, "Italy To-day."

Underwood, F. M., "United Italy."

Thayer, W. R., "Italica."

## ON AUSTRIA-HUNGARY:

Steed, H. W., "The Hapsburg Monarchy."

Whitman, S., "The Realm of the Hapsburgs."

Rumbold, H., "Francis Joseph and His Times."

Mahaffy, R. P., "Francis Joseph I, His Life and Times."

Seton-Watson, R. W., "Corruption and Reform in Hungary."

Seton-Watson, R. W., "Racial Problems in Hungary."

Seton-Watson, R. W., "Southern Slav Questions and the Hapsburg Monarchy."

Seton-Watson, R. W., "The Future of Austria-Hungary."

Lowell, A. L., "Governments and Parties in Continental Europe," Vol. II.

Colquhoun, A. R., "The Whirlpool of Europe"

## ON BELGIUM:

Ensor, R. C. K., "Belgium." (Home University Library.)

Rowntree, B. S., "Land and Labor: Lessons from Belgium."

MacDonnell, J. De C., "Belgium: Her Kings, Kingdom and People."

Boalger, D. C., "Belgian Life in Town and Country."



## ON THE BALKAN STATES:

Miller, William, "The Balkans: Roumania, Bulgaria, Serbia and Montenegro."

Miller, William, "The Ottoman Empire, 1801-1913."

Forbes, Nevill, and others, "The Balkans: A History of Bulgaria, Serbia, Greece, Roumania and Turkey."

Curtis, W. G., "The Turk and His Lost Provinces."

Schurman, J. G., "The Balkan Wars."

Seton-Watson, R. W., "The Southern Slav Question and the Hapsburg Monarchy."

## ON THE CAUSES OF THE EUROPEAN WAR:

Gibbons, H. A., "The New Map of Europe."

Gibbons, H. A., "The New Map of Africa."

Seymour, Charles, "The Diplomatic Background of the War."

Schmitt, B., "England and Germany."

Beyens, "Germany Before the War."

Bullard, Arthur, "Diplomacy of the Great War."

Allen, G. H., "The Great War."

Rohrbach, Paul, "Germany's Isolation."

Gauss, Christian, "The German Emperor as Shown in His Public Utterances."

Bülow, "Imperial Germany."

Sarolea, Charles, "The Anglo-German Problem."

Chitwood, "The Immediate Causes of the Great War."

Rose, J. H., "The Origins of the War."

Seton-Watson, R. W., and others, "The War and Democracy." (Macmillan.)

Grant, A. J., and others, "International Relations." (Macmillan.)

## Summer Reading on the War

A BRIEF LIST OF BOOKS PREPARED BY PROFESSOR GEORGE M. DUTCHER,  
WESLEYAN UNIVERSITY, MIDDLETOWN, CONN.

Only works in English have been listed.

No attempt has been made to include articles in periodicals, though it might be well to call attention to the numerous articles of outstanding merit in such magazines as the "Atlantic Monthly," the "World's Work," the "American Journal of International Law," the "International Journal of Ethics," the "Hibbert Journal," the "Yale Review," and the "New Republic."

Pamphlet literature has also been omitted, though mention might be made of such collections as the "Oxford Pamphlets," "International Conciliation," and the publications of the World's Peace Foundation.

Documentary publications have not been enumerated, but it may be noted that the "American Journal of International Law," "International Conciliation," and the publications of the Carnegie Endowment for Peace furnish in handy form the more important documents.

Narratives of the war, general and personal, have been omitted, though reference may be permitted to the "Current History," issued by the New York "Times," the London "Times' History of the War," and H. Belloc's "Elements of the Great War," two volumes, Hearst, 1915, and G. H. Allen's "Great War," three volumes, Barrie, 1915-16.

### The Background of the War.

C. Seymour, "The Diplomatic Background of the War, 1870-1914." Yale University Press, 1916. Pp. xv, 311. \$2.00.

H. A. Gibbons, "The New Map of Europe, 1911-1914, the Story of the Recent European Diplomatic Crises and Wars and of Europe's Present Catastrophe." Century, 1914. Pp. xi, 412. \$2.00.

Y. Guyot, tr. by F. A. Holt, "The Causes and Consequences of the War." Brentano, 1916. Pp. xxxvi, 360. \$3.00. (Excellent, comprehensive statement by great French economist.)

A. Bullard, "The Diplomacy of the Great War." Macmillan, 1916. Pp. xii, 344. \$1.50. (Includes chapters on United States and Europe.)

### The Diplomatic Rupture.

J. W. Headlam, "The History of Twelve Days, July 24 to August 4, 1914, being an Account of the Negotiations Preceding the Outbreak of the War Based on the Official Publications." Scribner, 1915. Pp. xxiv, 412. \$3.00. (English.)

E. C. Stowell, "The Diplomacy of the War of 1914, the Beginnings of the War." Houghton, 1915. Pp. xvii, 728. \$5.00. (American.)

J. M. Beck, "The Evidence in the Case in the Supreme Court of Civilization as to the Moral Responsibilities for the War." Putnam, 1914. Pp. 200. \$1.00. (American lawyer.)

E. J. Dillon, "From the Triple to the Quadruple Alliance,\* Why Italy Went to War." Doran, 1915. Pp. xii, 242. \$1.50. (By eminent English authority on international relations.)

### Great Britain and the War.

B. E. Schmitt, "England and Germany, 1740-1914." Princeton University Press, 1916. Pp. 524. \$2.00. (Topics historically viewed, anti-German.)

E. Hovelague, "The Deeper Causes of the War." Dutton, 1916. Pp. 158. \$1.25. (French view of Germany and its relations with England.)

F. S. Oliver, "Ordeal by Battle." Macmillan, 1915. Pp. li, 437. \$1.50. (Contrasts German and British policies; chapters on democracy and national service.)

D. Lloyd George, "Through Terror to Triumph, Speeches and Pronouncements Since the Beginning of the War." Doran, 1915. Pp. xii, 187. \$1.00.

### Germany.

G. M. Priest, "Germany Since 1740." Ginn, 1914. Pp. xvi, 199. \$1.25.

R. H. Fife, Jr., "The German Empire between Two Wars, a Study of the Political and Social Development of the Nation between 1871 and 1914." Macmillan, 1916. Pp. xiv, 400. \$1.50. (Admirable, dispassionate account of problems and conditions.)

Prince von Bülow, tr. by M. A. Lewenz, "Imperial Germany." Dodd, 1914. Pp. 342. \$3.00. Popular edition, \$1.50. (Published by the former Chancellor on the Kaiser's twenty-fifth anniversary.)

A German, "I Accuse!" Doran, 1915. Pp. 445. (Social Democratic point of view.)

W. W. Whitelock (tr.), "Modern Germany in Relation to the Great War, by Various German Writers." Kennerley, 1916. Pp. 628. \$2.00. (Translation of Deutschland und der Weltkrieg, by eminent German scholars and publicists.)

A. Hurd and H. Castle, "German Sea Power, Its Rise, Progress, and Economic Basis." Scribner, 1913. Pp. xv, 388. (Hurd has written numerous later articles on the subject.) \$3.50.

F. Naumann, tr. by C. M. Meredith, "Central Europe." Knopf, 1917. Pp. xix, 354. \$3.00. (Germany's political and economic aims in Central Europe expounded by well-known member of the Reichstag.)

#### Austria-Hungary and the Slavs.

R. W. Seton-Watson, "German, Slav and Magyar, a Study in the Origins of the Great War." London, Williams & Norgate, 1916. Pp. 198.

E. Ludwig, "Austria-Hungary and the War," with preface by Dr. Dumba. Ogilvie, 1915. Pp. 220. \$1.00.

#### France.

C. H. C. Wright, "A History of the Third French Republic." Houghton, 1916. Pp. 206. \$1.50.

J. C. Bracq, "The Provocation of France, Fifty Years of German Aggression." Oxford University Press, 1916. Pp. vii, 202. \$1.25.

#### Russia.

G. Alexinsky, tr. by B. Miall, "Russia and the Great War." Scribner, 1915. Pp. 357. \$3.00. (Social Democratic point of view.)

#### Africa.

H. A. Gibbons, "The New Map of Africa, 1900-1916, a History of European Colonial Expansion and Colonial Diplomacy." Century, 1916. Pp. xiv, 503. \$2.00.

#### Far East.

S. K. Hornbeck, "Contemporary Politics in the Far East." Appleton, 1916. Pp. xii, 466. \$3.00.

#### Policies of the United States.

A. C. Coolidge, "The United States as a World Power." Macmillan, 1908. Pp. 385.

A. B. Hart, "The Monroe Doctrine, an Interpretation." Little, Brown, 1916. Pp. xiv, 445. \$1.75.

P. M. Brown, "International Realities." Scribner, 1917. Pp. xvi, 233. \$1.40.

Norman Angell, "The World's Highway, Some Notes on America's Relation to Sea Power and Non-Military Sanctions for the Law of Nations." Doran, 1915. Pp. xvi, 361. \$1.50.

Norman Angell, "America and the New World-State, a Plea for American Leadership in International Organization." Putnam, 1915. Pp. x, 305. \$1.25.

S. Pérez Triana, "Some Aspects of the War." London, Unwin, 1915. Pp. 225. (An Argentine jurist on Latin-America, the United States and the War.)

#### The United States and the War.

T. Roosevelt, "America and the World War." Scribner, 1915. Pp. xv, 277. 75 cents.

H. Münsterberg, "The War and America." Appleton, 1914. Pp. 210. \$1.00.

J. M. Beck, "The War and Humanity, a Further Discussion of the Ethics of the World War and the Attitude and Duty of the United States." Putnam, 1916. Pp. 322. \$1.50.

"Sixty American Opinions on the War." London, Unwin, 1915. Pp. 165. (Collection of expressions by leading Americans.)

#### Nationality and Its Problems.

J. H. Rose, "Nationality in Modern History." Macmillan, 1916. Pp. xi, 202. \$1.25.

A. J. Toynbee, "Nationality and the War." Dutton, 1915. Pp. xii, 522. \$2.50. (Excellent study of several problems of nationality.)

R. W. Seton-Watson, and others, "The War and Democracy." Macmillan, 1915. Pp. xiv, 390. 80 cents. (One of the best discussions of problems of the war.)

S. Low, ed., "The Spirit of the Allied Nations, King's College Lectures in Imperial Studies." Macmillan, 1915. Pp. 214. \$1.00. (Different lecturers for the several nations.)

J. McCabe, "The Soul of Europe, a Character Study of the Militant Nations." Dodd, 1915. Pp. 407. \$3.00.

#### Results of the War, the Problems of Making Peace.

G. H. Blakeslee, ed., "The Problems and Lessons of the War." Clark University addresses, December 16, 17 and 18, 1915. Putnam, 1916. Pp. xlvii, 381. \$2.00.

"Problems of Readjustment After the War." Appleton, 1915. Pp. 186. \$1.00. (Articles by several leading American scholars.)

C. E. Fayle, "The Great Settlement." Duffield, 1915. Pp. xix, 309. \$1.75. (Comprehensive survey.)

H. Münsterberg, "The Peace and America." Appleton, 1915. Pp. 276. \$1.00. (Pro-German.)

H. Münsterberg, "To-morrow, Letters to a Friend in Germany." Appleton, 1916. Pp. 275. \$1.00. (Pro-German.)

"Cosmos," "The Basis of a Durable Peace." Written at the invitation of the New York "Times." Scribner, 1917. Pp. ix, 144. 30 cents.

S. S. McClure, "Obstacles to Peace." Houghton, 1917. Pp. xiii, 487. \$2.00.

#### THE TRAINING OF HISTORY TEACHERS.

The Committee on the Training of Secondary School Teachers of History of the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland has performed a service for the profession by gathering together a number of recent articles, and issuing them in pamphlet form under the heading "The Teacher of History in the Secondary Schools." The pamphlet, copies of which can be obtained from Dr. Livingston Rowe Schuyler, City College of New York, presents first a study of the need for better trained history teachers and the salary inducements offered in different parts of the country. This is followed by a paper by Prof. Edgar Dawson on "The Preparation of the High School Teacher of History;" by reports upon "The Certification of High School Teachers of History," by committees of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association; a paper on "The Preparation of the High School History Teacher," by H. W. Edwards; and by brief descriptions of the methods pursued in preparing history teachers in the College of the City of New York, Teachers' College of Columbia University and Hunter College, New York City. The committee, under whose auspices the pamphlet was issued, is composed of Dr. William Fairley, Commercial High School, Brooklyn, chairman; Dr. Herman V. Ames, Dr. J. Montgomery Gambrill, Dr. D. C. Knowlton, Principal W. D. Lewis, Prof. W. S. Myers, Prof. J. M. Vincent, Mr. William Tappen, and Dr. E. W. Lyttle.

# The National Board for Historical Service

BY JAMES T. SHOTWELL, CHAIRMAN OF THE BOARD.

As a result of a conference of history men which met, at the end of April, upon invitation of the Department of Historical Research of the Carnegie Institution of Washington, a National Board for Historical Service has been formed in Washington, with headquarters in the Woodward Building. The Board as at present constituted is composed of some nine members, who have been working during the past month upon problems which are of interest to all students and teachers of history. It is a voluntary and unofficial organization, formed in the hope that through it the store of competence and patriotic good-will possessed by those whose chief work is to study or teach history, instead of running in part to waste or even lying untouched, may eventually be drawn upon to meet the needs of the public or of the government.

A preliminary survey of the situation has already made it clear to this Board that the historians of the country have, in their own fields, a most important work to perform, a work of immediate urgency, which, if not taken up by them at once, will not likely be done at all.

In the first place, it practically depends upon them whether certain kinds of records and historical material dealing with the war shall be preserved or not. Unless they direct their attention upon securing the co-operation of their colleges and universities with libraries, local societies, and other possible agencies for the collection of historical and social data, especially for their own communities, there is grave danger that the essential elements in the vast and intricate social change induced by the war will not be registered for the purposes of history. In most cases little more is needed than the stimulation of definite suggestions to librarians or the officers of historical societies, but even under the most favorable local circumstances there is likely to be a real opportunity for the historian to co-operate in new and effective ways. The exact problems will differ in different localities, but in general there will be two main questions demanding a certain amount of specialized training for their solution: in the first place the scope of the material, the extent to which fugitive pieces, miscellaneous papers and more or less commonplace sources should be preserved; in the second place the question of classification by which this miscellany can be made available for current reference or future historical research.

The offer by teachers of history of such co-operation is not only a pressing duty in the interests of historical science, but one of the most important services which can be rendered to the nation. In a time like this historians are likely to feel that the issues with which they deal are too remote to justify them

to engage upon work for which their specialized training has fitted them. But in taking the initiative in this distinctly historical task—one which will not generally be accomplished unless they *do* take the initiative—they can both render accessible for immediate reference data upon which sound public opinion should be based, and also they may be able to stimulate and maintain a more intelligent public interest in the war itself, through the very act of collecting the materials concerning it.

In addition to the work of collecting, preserving, and making accessible the records and source-material for the history of this country during the war, there is also a demand upon teachers and students of history to aid more directly in the determination of historical outlook by writing articles, pamphlets, or books on topics connected with the war. In this field as well as in that of library and archival work a new opportunity is presented for original production. There is need of special informatory articles for the popular press by those who have access to its columns and to some extent of comment on news-items. In general, however, this journalistic activity should not be regarded as the chief literary field of students of history, since unless they are already familiar with the particular requirements of popular journalism, they may find their work rendered somewhat ineffective in the medium. They may, however, very often seek the co-operation of editors and stimulate the journalists themselves to accomplish the desired result.

The chief magazines and reviews on the other hand will offer a field more suited to the historical student. There promises to be an opportunity for placing historical articles of a more serious sort and it is to be hoped that this opportunity will be embraced to the full. The same seems to be true, though to a less extent, of the book trade. There is a new demand upon the part of the reading public to which book publishers are eager to adjust their output and they are ready to receive suggestions, and when not able to put them into effect may at least furnish advice as to possible ways of so doing.

Upon the whole, it should be emphasized that in the opinion of the Board, historians can continue to serve the country best at this time, as in the past, as *historians*. The crisis has offered them new opportunities for this service; it calls from them a certain amount of initiative; it opens up the possibility of larger influence in the determination of opinions by an insistence upon the consideration of fact; and it places before all teachers of history the obligation to contribute to the educational adjustment now in progress in this country some stimulation toward a scientific spirit in dealing with social and political data.

## National Board Calls for Co-operation of Teachers

The National Board for Historical Service has appointed four committees—on ancient history, medieval and modern history, English history, and American history—to prepare material to aid the history teachers of the country in adjusting their courses next year to the changed interests of their pupils and the new conditions which the war imposes upon us all.

To serve the time without yielding to it, to boldly confront new facts without losing our historical point of view, will require all our wisdom and all our talent. The Board earnestly hopes that the teachers of the country will give it their assistance. It requests that they send to it their own suggestions of how the war will and should affect history teaching; their observations of how it is affecting their pupils; and concrete illustrations of the attempts they may have made to meet the situation in their own classes. All such material will be handed by the Board to the appropriate committee.

## Reports from The Historical Field

Number 14 of the Proceedings of the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland has been distributed to members of the Association. The papers contained in the report are those presented at the fourteenth annual meeting held at Columbia University, New York City, April 28 and 29, 1916; and the joint meeting with the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland, held in Baltimore, December 2, 1916. The general topics presented in the papers are "What Profits Result from the Study of History?" "A Fuller Recognition of Latin-America in History Teaching," "The Teaching of Current History, Civics and Economics." The report contains a full account of these two meetings, together with the officers and committees of the Association, and a full list of members, and it is to be noted that the list contains 285 members.

"The Mississippi Valley Historical Review" for April, 1917, contains the proceedings of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association for the year 1915-16. The number gives the Constitution of the Association; the officers for 1915-16, and the officers and committee for 1916-17. A description of the ninth annual meeting of the Association is furnished by Prof. Beverly W. Bond, Jr. Reports of the officers and committees are given, together with the principal papers presented at the April meeting of 1916, with the exception of such papers as have been printed in previous numbers of the "Mississippi Valley Historical Review" or in other publications.

A revised edition of "A Syllabus of United States History, 1492-1916," prepared by Professors H. C. Hockett and A. M. Schlesinger, of Ohio State University, has appeared. The syllabus contains nearly one hundred pages. The organization of topics and principal references are to Bassett's "Short History of the United States," but under each topic there are also references to other texts, to larger works on American history, and to material for topical readings.

The New England History Teachers' Association has issued a neat little pamphlet giving the principal facts concerning its organization. A sketch of the history of the Association is presented, the text of the by-laws is given, the membership of present committees and a full list of members of the Association.

At the meeting of the History Teachers' Association of the Middle States and Maryland, held at Philadelphia on Saturday, May 5, the following resolution was adopted: "Resolved, That the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland heartily endorses the plan of the National Board for Historical Service, and pledges its support to the Board in its work."

## THE MISSISSIPPI VALLEY HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.

The following resolution was adopted at the meeting of the Association held in Chicago, April 26-28:

The Mississippi Valley Historical Association in session in Chicago at its tenth annual meeting, April 26, 1917, urges that means be taken by the government of the United States to facilitate the sound historical instruction of the people of the United States to the end that a correct public opinion with full knowledge of the facts that have made for our democracy and freedom in the past may stand stubbornly in our struggle for the maintenance of these principles in the future.

At the business meeting Professor St. George L. Sioussat was chosen president, and Mrs. Clarence S. Paine, of Lincoln, Neb., was chosen secretary-treasurer. The Executive Committee was instructed to consider the invitation from St. Paul to hold the next annual meeting of the Association at that place.

## NATIONAL BOARD ORGANIZED.

Resolutions adopted at Washington, April 29, 1917, for the establishment of a National Board for Historical Service:

As an emergency measure, to serve until action by the American Historical Association, the undersigned, meeting in Washington upon invitation by the Carnegie Institution of Washington through its Department of Historical Research, have adopted the following resolutions:

Resolved:

I. That there be formed a National Board for Historical Service.

II. That the headquarters of the Board shall be in Washington, D. C.

III. That the purposes of the National Board for Historical Service shall be:

a. To facilitate the co-ordination and development of historical activities in the United States in such a way as to aid the Federal and the State governments through direct personal service or through affiliation with their various branches.

b. To aid in supplying the public with trustworthy information of historical or similar character through the various agencies of publication, through the preparation of reading-lists and bibliographies, through the collection of historical material, and through the giving of lectures and of systematic instruction, and in other ways.

c. To aid, encourage and organize State, regional and local committees, as well as special committees for the furtherance of the above ends, and to co-operate with other agencies and organizations, especially in the general field of social studies.

IV. That the Board shall be composed of at least nine members who shall select a chairman, vice-chairman, secretary and treasurer from their own number, and that the said Board shall have power to add to its membership, to fill vacancies, to appoint advisory and associated members, to organize affiliated or subsidiary boards of committees, to receive and disburse moneys, and to perform such other acts as may be necessary for the accomplishment of the purposes herein stated.

V. That the Board, until further action by itself in conformity with these resolutions, shall be composed of the following:

Victor S. Clark, of Washington; Robert D. W. Connor, of Raleigh, N. C.; Carl Russell Fish, of Madison, Wis.; Charles D. Hazen, of New York City; Charles H. Hull, of Ithaca, N. Y.; Gaillard Hunt, of Washington; Waldo G. Leland, of Washington; James T. Shotwell, of New York City; Frederick J. Turner, of Cambridge, Mass.

Adopted at Washington, D. C., April 29, 1917.

Henry E. Bourne, Edmund C. Burnett, Victor S. Clark, George M. Dutcher, Guy S. Ford, Charles D. Hazen, Charles H. Hull, Gaillard Hunt, J. Franklin Jameson, H. Barrett Learned, Waldo G. Leland, Albert E. McKinley, Andrew C. McLaughlin, Thomas Walker Page, Frederic L. Paxson, James T. Shotwell, Frederick J. Turner.

#### MIDDLE STATES ASSOCIATION.

The fifteenth annual spring meeting of the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland was held at Philadelphia on May 4 and 5. The program, as announced in the May number of the *MAGAZINE*, was carried out. There was a good attendance and much interest was shown in the topics presented. Professor Ames' paper on the teaching of patriotism is printed elsewhere in this number. The papers upon the character of the curriculum in history for vocational students presented by Dr. A. S. Beatman and Dr. J. Montgomery Gambrill, will appear in the *HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE* in the near future. A very pleasant reception and luncheon were furnished to the members of the Association by the authorities of Girard College. An opportunity was given to inspect the historic relics of the institution, to learn of the character of the foundation left by Stephen Girard, and to inspect the actual work of the institution in caring for 1,500 orphan boys. At the business meeting, the following officers were elected: President, Professor Marshall S. Brown, of New York University; vice-president, Miss Lida Lee Tall of Baltimore; secretary-treasurer, Professor Livingston Rowe Schuyler, of the College of the City of New York; additional members of the Council, Miss Lucy B. Hunter, of the National Cathedral School, Washington, D. C., and Mr. D. Montfort Melchior, of Girard College.

Herbert Adams Gibbons' "The Monroe Doctrine for the World" (May "Century") is a commentary on President Wilson's speech to the American Senate, January 22, 1917, of which the author not only approves himself, but of which he says men of the highest standing and authority in European countries think exactly as President Wilson thinks; "but with the single exception of Signor Giolitti, former premier of Italy, not a statesman who played a part in the diplomacy of the decade preceding the present war has the moral courage to approve President Wilson's conditions for a durable peace."

## History in Summer Schools, 1917

(Items received too late for insertion in the May *MAGAZINE*)

### BOSTON UNIVERSITY.

Boston, Mass., July 2 to August 11, 1917.

Professor F. M. Anderson, Dartmouth College; Professor S. L. Mims, Yale University; Professor A. H. Rice; Assistant Professor C. P. Huse.

Europe Since 1815. Professor Anderson.

The World War. Professor Anderson.

Colonial America with Special Reference to the American Revolution. Professor Mims.

Roman History: Teachers' Course. Professor Rice.

General Economics. Assistant Professor Huse.

Economic History of the United States. Assistant Professor Huse.

### UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO.

Additional courses not mentioned in the *MAGAZINE* for May.

Assistant Professor Rolla Milton Tryon; Assistant Professor Arthur William Dunn, Specialist in Civic Education, United States Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.; Miss Grace E. Storm.

Teaching of History in Primary Grades. Miss Storm.

Teaching of History in Intermediate Grades. Miss Storm.

Teaching of History in Grammar Grades and Junior High Schools. Mr. Tryon.

Teaching of High School History. Mr. Tryon.

Teaching of Community Civics. Mr. Dunn.

Teaching in the Social Sciences in High Schools. Mr. Dunn.

### UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS.

Urbana, Ill., June 18 to August 10, 1917.

Professor Albert H. Lybyer; Professor Paul C. Phillips, University of Montana.

European History, 1648-1917. Professor Lybyer.

American History, 1606-1783. Professor Phillips.

The History of the United States Since the Reconstruction. Professor Phillips.

The Ottoman Empire and the Near East Since 1683. The Balkan and Near Eastern Problems Since 1908. Professor Lybyer.

Seminar in American History. Professor Phillips and others.

Seminar in European History. Professor Lybyer.

### JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY.

Baltimore, Md., June 26, to August 7, 1917.

(Revised Announcement.)

Professor E. J. Benton, Western Reserve University; Associate Professor H. V. Canter, University of Illinois; Dr. Arthur C. Millsbaugh, Whitman College; Dr. Frank R. Blake.

American History, 1763-1795. Professor Benton.

American History Since 1783. Professor Benton.

European History from Charlemagne to the Eighteenth Century. Professor Benton.

Roman History. Associate Professor Canter.

International Relations. Dr. Millsbaugh.

International Arbitration. Dr. Millsbaugh.

History of the Ancient East. Dr. Blake.

## MIAMI UNIVERSITY.

Oxford, O., June 11 to July 20, 1917.

Professor D. C. Shilling, Monmouth College; Mr. C. T. Murchison.

Modern Europe.  
 American History, 1492-1750.  
 American History, 1750-1800.  
 American Political History, 1800-1850.  
 American Political History, 1850-1917.  
 American Government.

## UNIVERSITY OF MISSISSIPPI.

University, Miss.

Professor Milton S. Cushman; Professor H. G. McGowan; Mr. R. L. Bedwell; Miss Nellie Keirn.

History of Western Europe, 1500-1870. Professor Cushman.

History of Modern Europe, 1815-1914. Professor Cushman.

American History, 1828-1914. Professor Cushman.  
 History and Geography of South America. Miss Keirn.  
 United States History. For Teachers. Professor McGowan.  
 Mississippi History. Mr. Bedwell.

## UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA.

Chapel Hill, N. C., June 12 to July 27, 1917.

Professor Henry McGilbert Wagstaff; Professor Joseph Hamilton; Mr. Charles E. McIntosh, Superintendent of Schools, Hickory, N. C.; Mr. William W. Pierson.

The History of England. Mr. McIntosh.  
 The History of the United States. Mr. McIntosh.  
 The French Revolution. Mr. Pierson.  
 Modern Europe. Professor Wagstaff.  
 Modern International Relations. Professor Hamilton.  
 International Relations. Professor Hamilton.  
 The Middle Period. Mr. Pierson.

England During the Last One Hundred Years. Professor Wagstaff.

## UNIVERSITY OF PITTSBURGH.

Pittsburgh, Pa.

Assistant Professor Homer J. Webster.

Political History of the United States.

History of England. A study of the period from 1660 to the nineteenth century.

The Middle Period.

Proseminar in American or Pennsylvania History.

"Our Future Immigration Policy," by Frederick C. Howe, Commissioner of Immigration, New York (May "Scribner's"), urges a change in our policy—a more positive interest in the aliens after they land. He also calls attention to the change in the immigration problem which the war brings. The sketches illustrating the article by George Pavis (a French artist wounded at Verdun) on "The American Ambulance Hospital at Neuilly," in the same magazine, are also worthy of attention.

The Committee of Sixty (505 Fifth Avenue, New York City) is sending out literature urging the adoption of the prohibition of liquor traffic and sale during the war. The president of the committee is Professor Irving Fisher, of Yale University. Arguments upon the other side of the question are also being circulated by the brewers and liquor interest of the United States.

## BOOK REVIEWS

EDITED BY PROFESSOR WAYLAND J. CHASE,  
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

SEYMOUR, CHARLES. The Diplomatic Background of the War, 1870-1914. New York: Yale University Press, 1916. Pp. xv, 311. \$2.00, net.

In his preface the author notes that, while many analyses of the diplomatic crisis of 1914 have been made since then, far less attention "has been given to the origin of the factors leading to that crisis." Dr. Seymour starts with the war of 1870, and shows how Bismarck worked to keep the German hegemony of Europe which the German victories had gained. Then he traces the growth of the Dual Alliance, and points out that Germany nevertheless kept her control of continental diplomacy. Chapters IV and V deal with the growth of German world policy and its underlying causes. Then the author traces the changes of British foreign policy from rivalry with France and Russia to friendship with them, and the resulting diplomatic incidents of 1905, 1908, and 1911, marking German efforts to recover the lost diplomatic ascendancy. The Near Eastern question and the Balkan wars are explained, and the final crisis of 1914 elucidated clearly and without prejudice.

Dr. Seymour concludes that Germany and Austria-Hungary were playing for a great diplomatic victory that would restore their lost supremacy in the Balkans, that their leaders doubtless expected this could be won without war, that Austria weakened and showed willingness to negotiate further, when it became evident that Russia would not yield without a war, and that Germany then forced the issue by her ultimatum to Russia, and is therefore immediately responsible for the failure of negotiations to settle the disputes peaceably. This conclusion seems sane.

While it is not particularly original, the book brings the material together in very convenient form, and provides a useful survey of the field. It is readable and not too long for students and for the general reader. High school teachers and students will find it very useful for reference reading on the causes of the war.

CLARENCE PERKINS.

Ohio State University.

ELLIOT, HUGH. Herbert Spencer. New York: Henry Holt &amp; Co., 1917. Pp. 330. \$2.00.

Herbert Spencer's life extending from 1820 to 1903 comprehended much of the nineteenth century, and of its philosophic thought he was the chief exponent. What he wrote in this field, for half a century held the attention of all thinking people, and his text-book on psychology was the most important of the century. These achievements he accomplished without any acquaintance with the works of his predecessors in these fields, and with but scanty knowledge concerning those of his contemporaries. He established the science of sociology in England, was a leader in all branches of the so-called moral sciences and led the chief controversies on evolution and biology. He wrote his volume on education before he was forty, never having had more than three months' experience in teaching, never having married or had more than the minimum of association with children, and having practically no knowledge of what had been previously written on the subject. Yet "more than any other single text-book, it is the foundation of all the so-called modern ideas in education." Besides the superlative value of his books, inestimable was the

service he rendered society through his insistent battling for liberty and for reason.

As the author says, the lives of men of thought, unlike those of men of action, are barren of incident, for they live in their writings rather than in their acts. Accordingly, nine of the thirteen chapters are devoted to description and appraising of his writings. Mr. Elliott has interestingly and convincingly shown Spencer's warrant to a place among the "Makers of the Nineteenth Century," and made a notable contribution to this series of biographies.

**HAZEN, CHARLES DOWNER.** *The French Revolution and Napoleon.* New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1917. Pp. viii, 385. \$2.50.

This volume is a reprint of a portion of Professor Hazen's volume on "Modern European History." The maps of the larger work have been retained, but the illustrations and reading references have been omitted. The book is printed in large type, on heavy paper, with a wide margin, and is attractively bound. It is a war product, being intended for those who, living in "an age like our own, caught in the grip of a world war, whose issues, however incalculable, will inevitably be profound," would benefit from the "instruction to be gained from the study of a similar crisis in the destinies of humanity a century ago." This "most dramatic and impressive chapter of modern history," as Professor Hazen describes it, is most attractively written and should appeal to the audience for which it was prepared. It is one of the best sketches of the period in English. The second part dealing with Napoleon seems to me better than the first part on the Revolution, but, then, Napoleon gives a unity to the second period that can hardly be created for the first even by the most skilful organization.

FRED MORROW FLING.

The University of Nebraska.

**MOSES, BELLE.** *Paul Revere, the Torchbearer of the Revolution.* New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1916. Pp. 270. \$1.35.

**BARNES, JAMES.** *The Hero of Stony Point, Anthony Wayne.* New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1916. Pp. 210. \$1.35.

These books belong to the same series, and are both calculated to hold the interest of boys and girls. They make no pretension of erudition, and merely recall the well-known facts of their heroes' lives, supplemented by such detail as the space allows. This is sufficient to make lively, interesting stories and to set forth enough of the activities of both heroes to show that they filled much larger places in Revolutionary history than can be learned from the regulation text-book statements about them. Every boy ought to know that Paul Revere engaged in other occupations than that of engraver, and that he took many other important rides besides the famous one. He should know also that Anthony Wayne served his country in other campaigns than the ones against Stony Point and the Western Indians.

The author of Paul Revere's life is too anxious to make him a hero upon every occasion. Consequently, the style is somewhat strained, and there are too many assumptions introduced by "we may conjecture," "probably," and "one may imagine," where accurate knowledge is lacking. Needless to say, all doubts are resolved in favor of Revere. One's faith in the author's ability to handle serious historical material is decidedly shaken by the following

statement made (page 219) about the Federal Constitution: "Alexander Hamilton, Washington's former aide-de-camp and our first Secretary of State, drafted this Constitution which created great stir and mighty arguments."

In view of the extent and importance of Revere's product in engravings, one wonders that not more are reproduced in this volume.

The story of Anthony Wayne is told in a more natural and restrained style. This hero, unlike that of the companion volume, has some faults. The book brings out admirably the qualities and services of Wayne that make the sobriquet "Mad Anthony" inappropriate. It displays the seamy side of Revolutionary politics and gives details that show clearly the manner of warfare in those times.

ALBERT H. SANFORD.

State Normal School, La Crosse, Wis.

**KREHBIEL, EDWARD.** *Nationalism, War and Society: A study of nationalism and its concomitant, war, in their relation to civilization and of the fundamentals and the progress of the opposition to war.* With an introduction by Norman Angell. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1916. Pp. xxxv, 276. \$1.50.

The scope of this work is indicated by its titles. Its purpose is to give a handbook of information and philosophy to the student of the conflict between the conservatives, who believe that nothing can be which has not already been, and therefore have no hope that war may be eliminated from the world, on the one hand; and on the other, the liberals, who, finding that man has gradually in the last fifty thousand years risen higher and higher above the animals, believe that yet another step is possible, and that reason may replace brute force in all human relations. The work takes the form of a syllabus; but the sentences and paragraphs which are subjoined to the topics dispose the reader to wonder why the author did not write it into a book. The work is admirably done and the bibliographical references are ample and carefully selected. No student of the subject it treats can afford to be without it, and we are all to-day students of the subject.

EDGAR DAWSON.

Hunter College of the City of New York.

**ROBINSON, C. E.** *The Days of Alkibiades.* New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1916. Pp. xxiv, 301. \$1.50.

For secondary schools the Assistant Master of Winchester College has written a series of sketches of public and private Greek life at the close of the fifth century B. C. He had hoped—the preface tells us—"to reproduce, truly and with fair completeness, the habits of an Athenian gentleman, how he dressed, ate, and spent his day, how he talked and what he thought, the scenes he saw and the places he visited." This gentleman who was always in the thick of it is the freakish and fascinating Alkibiades.

With him we wander through Athens visiting an Attic farm, gymnasium and the market-place. We attend a dinner-party, a wedding, the theatre, the assembly, a jury trial, a funeral and the great festival of Athena. We are safe witnesses of a land and sea battle. Leaving the Piræus we go to Delphi, Eleusis, Olympia, Sparta, and finally to the Hellespont where Alkibiades ended his life.

Besides knowing the classic writers and the most recent works about them, the author has become, through travel, intimately familiar with the latest archaeological discoveries, the geography and the life of modern Greece. He is also gifted with an imagination that turns out fresh, vivid pictures keeping the proofs of learning so far in the back-



ground that only scholars may detect them. Yet every detail is "documented." There are no marginal references, and only two footnotes, one on the theatre, and the one on the arrangement of oars in a trireme where a somewhat novel explanation is given.

The translation of Greek public life into terms of English public life may not always be a help to American pupils. There are some sixteen pictures to illustrate the text. The foreword by Professor C. W. Oman, though covering only four pages, is one of the assets of the book, and a notable one for the teacher.

VICTORIA A. ADAMS.

Calumet High School, Chicago.

CHAPMAN, CHARLES EDWARD. *The Founding of Spanish California, the Northwestward Expansion of New Spain, 1687-1783*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1916. Pp. xxxii, 485. \$3.50.

The careful appreciation of Dr. Chapman's work, appearing in the January number of "The American Historical Review," renders unnecessary the critical appraisal which such an important volume would otherwise demand. We may limit our attention, therefore, to the aim of the work, the material upon which it is founded, and the method according to which the results are presented.

As Professor Henry Morse Stephens explains in the introduction (pp. xix-xxxii), this is an effort both to meet the local demand for researches in California history, and to make a contribution to the general history of civilization. It was owing to the interest evinced by Californians in the early history of the Pacific Coast that the Native Sons of the Golden West offered a subsidy of \$3,000 a year for traveling fellowships, thus making possible the neces-

sary research of Dr. Chapman among the archives of Spain. The historical collections of Hubert Howe Bancroft, now located at the University of California, are also the result of the same spirit. With such opportunities at hand, in a field comparatively little worked, there is no wonder that not only this present study but others along similar lines are making their appearance. That the study of this period of California history leads to a broader conception of its importance from the point of view of Spanish civilization hardly needs to be emphasized, especially after the appearance of "The Pacific Ocean in History; the Papers and Addresses Presented at the Panama-Pacific Historical Congress."

The peculiar arrangement of the text is due to the desire to present the story *in extenso*; thus each chapter opens with a summary of from one to three pages in length explaining the nature of the contents of that chapter. Then comes the narrative minutely following the accounts of the documents. There are some excellent appendices and full bibliographical notes.

HENRY L. CANNON.

Stanford University.

"National Independence and Internationalism," by Bertrand Russell, a study of the matters in which the interests of nations are supposed to clash; "Japan and the United States," by K. K. Kawakami, a frank statement of the causes of the estrangement between Japan and the United States; "Nicaragua and the United States," by Cyrus F. Wicker, charge d'affaire at Nicaragua, rather a criticism of our policy toward the smaller republics, and Catherine Breshkovsky's "Letters from Siberia," make the May issue of the "Atlantic" of especial interest to historians.

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## Periodical Literature

EDITED BY GERTRUDE BRAMLETTE RICHARDS, PH.D.

The March number of the "National Geographic Magazine" has an article on Russia—"Russia's Democrats"—by Montgomery Schuyler, which gives a brief historical background of recent affairs. In the same issue is David Jayne Hill's "Republics—The Ladder to Liberty," while the unusually splendid illustrations of Spanish and Algerian scenes should not be overlooked.

"Why Alsace Lorraine Wants to be French," by Jules Bois in the May "Bookman," is an interesting study of the will and conscience of Alsace. The same magazine publishes a good brief account of the March revolution under the title of "Russia Resurgent," by Abraham Yarmolinsky, and the second installment—political considerations—of "The Revolution in Arabia," by Ameen Ribani.

Lacy Amy's new series on "England in Arms" begins in this month's issue of the "Canadian Magazine" with the article, "Women and the War," in which he says, "The amazing discovery of the war is the adaptability of woman to tasks never before attempted by her."

"The Russian Revolution," by Henry W. Nevins, and "The Present Financial Position of Russia," by Professor J. Y. Simpson, which appear in the April "Contemporary Review," are among the best articles which have yet appeared on this subject. Neither author doubts the ultimate success of the Revolution, despite certain unfortunate aspects of the early days.

"The Middle Schools in Japan," by K. Sakamoto ("Educational Review" for May), gives a good idea of educational conditions in Japan and of their close connection with religious and State affairs.

J. A. R. Marriott, in his article on "English History in Shakespeare," discusses the background of Richard II, and gives abundant proof of the historical accuracy of this play.

"The Sufferings of Poland," by Countess de Turczynowicz (May "Forum"), is an account of her personal experiences during the early months of the war, and it closes with an appeal for help in reconstruction.

"The Development of Christian Institutions and Beliefs," by Alfred Fawkes, in the April number of the "Harvard Theological Review," gives a broad survey of the subject. The same magazine also publishes Preserved Smith's "English Opinions of Luther," a study of Shakespearean, Puritanic, eighteenth century and modern theologians' and laymen's attitude towards Luther, rather than towards the Reformation.

H. A. L. Fisher, Vice-Chancellor of Sheffield University, writes on "French Nationalism" for the January number of "The Hibbert Journal," and attempts to find a religious spirit dominating the national effort.

Those who are interested in seeing our government through the eyes of our neighbors will be interested in Colonel Sir Thomas Holdish's article on "How the War Affects American Interests," and Sir Francis Piggott's "Sea Power, the Armed Neutrality and President Wilson," in the April "Nineteenth Century."

"Can Democracy be Efficient?" by Robert W. Bruère (May "Harper's"), asks the question, "In an age dominated by science and dependent upon the scientific method, are the democratic masses capable of intelligent self-direction, or must they, in self-defense, surrender the con-

trol of the government to the superior ability of the trained and exceptionally gifted few?" and answers it by saying, "No theoretical answer to the question as to whether democracy can be efficient, could have a value comparable to that which will be given by the outcome of the struggle which is subjecting democracy in England and the British Empire to the supreme test."

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## CONTENTS

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To Those Who Remain at Home	- - - -	213
Ancient Egypt and the Modern World, by Prof. J. H. Breasted		214
England before the Norman Conquest, by Prof. L. M. Larson		215
Suggestions upon Medieval History, by Prof. D. C. Munro		217
Relation of American to European History, by Prof. E. B. Greene		218
Latin-American History in Secondary Schools, by Dr. N. A. N. Cleven	- - - - -	219
A Political Generalization, by Prof. Edgar Dawson	-	222
Historical Novels in American History, by Prof. E. L. Bogart		226
Notes from the Historical Field, 231; Schools and the War, 231; Modern History Syllabus, 233; Book Reviews, edited by Prof. W. J. Chase, 234; Periodical Literature, by Dr. G. B. Richards, 237; Recent Historical Publications, listed by Dr. C. A. Coulomb, 238.		

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# THE MAGAZINE FOR 1917-1918

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With the co-operation of the National Bureau for Historical Service of Washington, D. C., THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE will publish during the period, September, 1917, to June, 1918, a series of about forty articles by well-known scholars.

The purpose of the papers will be to show to what extent, if at all, the teaching of history in American schools should be made to bear upon the present international situation of the United States.

Always the aim will be to prevent distortion of historical facts, and to show teachers how far a selection of significant facts is warranted by true historical method.

These articles will be published at the rate of four a month; one in each issue dealing respectively with Ancient, European, English, and American History. Roughly they will parallel the usual four high school courses.

The general preparation of the articles is under the supervision of committees, of which the following are chairmen: Ancient History, Prof. R. V. D. Magoffin, of Johns Hopkins University; European History, Prof. Dana C. Munro, of Princeton University; English History, Prof. Arthur L. Cross, of the University of Michigan; American History, Prof. Evarts B. Greene, of the University of Illinois. Over thirty college professors and experienced secondary school teachers will contribute to the series.

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## To Those Who Remain at Home

To many a history teacher unable to join the forces in the field has come the question, "What can I do? I have been trained in normal school, college, and graduate school in certain habits of research; I have acquired what I believe to be satisfactory pedagogical methods; I have stored my mind and notebooks with innumerable facts concerning the history of the past; I may even have developed a power of generalization and comparison which at times I call a philosophy of history. But can I make any of these expertnesses count for my country in the present struggle? They seem so impractical, so far removed from the battlefield conflicts that I am tempted to throw them all over and enter a munitions factory. I, who am willing to give my goods, my blood, and my life to the country—must I go on recounting these tales of forgotten days? What can I do?"

A partial answer to this question was given in THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE for June. Another answer is found in the announcement made by the National Board for Historical Service and the Committee on Public Information on another page of this issue.

But still another answer can be made to the question. The history teacher can effectively serve the country through the daily class-room work. This will require careful thought, much work in rearrangement of material and great care in the presentation of the facts.

There is one sacrifice no historian must make. He must not distort or pervert the facts of history to suit the present struggle. He must "see things as they really were and are. This is not easy at any time; it is peculiarly difficult at such a time as this when to many people a slight distortion of facts may even seem a patriotic duty. Aggressive sovereigns like Louis XIV and Frederick the Great were usually able to find loyal subjects who could produce legal and historical arguments in support of policies already put into effect by their armies in the field. Similar things have happened in the present war and since history teachers are not less human than their fellow-citizens, we must all of us be on our guard against this mistaken view of patriotic duty. In the long run loyalty to the country, as well as loyalty to history, are best served by looking the facts squarely in the face."

Yet in the class-room, as is pointed out in the Bulletin of the United States Bureau of Education, entitled, "History and the Great War: Opportunities for History Teachers," the conscientious teacher can

do much. (1) By training pupils in the "historical conception of their membership in a *continuing* community, more important than their own individual fortunes;" (2) by supplying a "larger and truer perspective" in movements of depression or of easy-going optimism; (3) by teaching the financial and economic experiences of other wars; (4) by training pupils and their parents to take an intelligent part in the decision of public questions, particularly by laying a foundation for sensible action in international relations, in an understanding of other nations; and (5) thus prepare citizens generally to accept the responsibility for a permanent "establishment of a better international order, a real society of nations."

What facts of history should be dwelt upon in order to attain these results? How can these results be obtained in a course in ancient or medieval history? These questions are answered in general terms in the Bulletin mentioned above. But they will receive more definite answers in the series of articles which begins in this issue of the MAGAZINE.

Under the auspices of the National Board for Historical Service four committees of professors and teachers of history have been organized, to consider the problems respectively of ancient, European, English, and American history. The chairmen of these committees are Prof. R. V. D. Magoffin, Prof. D. C. Munro, Prof. A. L. Cross, and Prof. E. B. Greene. With the assistance of many other workers these committees are preparing four series of articles which will appear in the MAGAZINE from the present number until June, 1918. An article for each one of the fields of history will appear in each issue, and the effort will be made to have all the articles roughly parallel the usual year's work in each subject.

Among the writers of the series are the following professors and teachers of history: E. B. Greene, St. G. L. Sioussat, T. C. Smith, C. R. Fish, E. D. Adams, James Sullivan, R. A. Mauer, F. L. Paxson, A. L. Cross, C. H. McIlwain, E. R. Turner, D. C. Munro, J. H. Breasted, R. V. D. Magoffin, A. T. Olmstead, W. L. Westermann, Arthur I. Andrews, and others. The series is being prepared with the co-operation of the National Board for Historical Service, of Washington, D. C.

It is the earnest hope of all the scholars co-operating in this work that history teaching in America may retain in the present crisis not only its scholastic standards, but also that it will draw from the past examples which will be of enduring social value.

# Ancient Egypt and the Modern World

BY PROFESSOR JAMES HENRY BREASTED, OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO.

Much modern history has been made since August, 1914, in the valley of the Somme in northern France. The soil of the battle-scarred hills overlooking the river is thickly sown with fragments of steel shells which have deeply penetrated the slopes and natural terraces made by the river ages ago, when it was at a higher level and before it had sculptured out its present valley and bed. These steel fragments buried here represent man's latest and most terrible effort in the art of self-destruction.

You may go to this valley when the guns are silent, and a few moments' work with a shovel on the gravel slopes along the brow of the upper terraces will uncover the gravels which were lapped by the river a hundred and fifty thousand years ago and more. If you know the proper places a little search will reveal among these gravels, flint fist hatchets, the earliest surviving weapons and handiwork of man, wrought not less than fifty thousand and perhaps a hundred and fifty thousand years ago. They are man's first devices, or at least the earliest that have survived to us, for hunting, for self-defence and for destruction of his kind. There they lie as you unearth them, side by side with the fragments of steel shells in the same gravels, and the whole sweep of human history lies between them. From the flint fist hatchet to the modern explosive shell of steel—what a story of human endeavor leads us age by age from the one to the other!

It is only as we view the career of man in a panoramic vista like this, that we gain impressions of the unity of that career in the long upward struggle toward civilization, the attainment of which we earliest discern on the Nile. The progress, and with it the discoveries which displaced the European's stone implements, and put into his hand the copper hatchet and dagger, were first achieved in Egypt. In that progress, among many other of its aspects, two processes of fundamental importance to the modern world may be discerned. The graves of the earliest Egyptians as we find them in the desert gravels along the margin of the Nile Valley, contain an equipment for the next world—an equipment in which we see the incoming of metal and the Nile-dweller's gradual conquest of the material world about him. That conquest went on with an effectiveness and completeness, leading to a mechanical and technical supremacy, which made the thirtieth century B. C., the greatest century in man's growing control of the material world before the nineteenth century A. D.

The first of these two processes was therefore the Egyptian's surprisingly extended conquest of the material world, which in the sovereign power and splendor of its great monuments, is comparable with our own modern achievements in the conquest of our vast domain in North America. Besides the earliest

metal and the first sea-going ships, many things fundamental to our own material progress at the present day, as every one knows, were discovered or devised and developed by the Egyptians as their early power over the material processes of life expanded. Hand in hand with these went the growth of finer capacities of the human mind, as we see emerging the earliest writing, the first great architecture in stone, portrait sculpture of remarkable power in spite of the fact that it is the earliest known, decorative art which for the first time drew upon flowers and other vegetable motives for its fundamental forms, and brought the whole world of such natural beauty into decorative design for all time.

While all this had been going on, it had stimulated and itself had been greatly furthered by the second process, the development of a great social and administrative organization, resulting in the first human society organized on a large scale. After a long struggle for leadership among many petty states up and down the lower Nile between the First Cataract and the Sea, the result of the competition was the final triumph of Menes, the leader of the valley communities above the Delta, who conquered the Delta kings, and welded the upper and lower kingdoms into the first great nation of the early world. Enormous prestige was rapidly acquired by the Pharaonic house thus founded. Upon the imagination of the Egyptian there gradually dawned the unapproachable power and splendor of a supreme personality, involving with it also the conception of a great state, with which it was identical. For the control of the economic and social life of the prosperous Nile communities, the Pharaohs developed a detailed organization of local government, forming a vast administrative machine, the like of which did not arise in Europe until far down in the later history of the Roman Empire. In this first great fabric of human organization, the individual member of a community disappeared or was engulfed, and the state was supreme. Here, then, was manifested and developed for the first time that power of the state, unknown in the life of the primitive hunter with his fist hatchet on the banks of the Somme—a power over life and death, to which millions of men are to-day unquestioningly bowing, as they sacrifice themselves and all that human life holds most dear, to international rivalries. This Egyptian organization of men into an elaborately detailed machinery of state, survived far down into Roman times, and had a profound influence on the early world, again illustrating the fundamental importance of the geographical fact that the Nile flows into the Mediterranean, and Egypt is part of the Mediterranean world.

The two processes which we have been discussing placed the Egyptian in control of forces, mechanical

and administrative, so remarkable and effective, that they have left monuments which are still regarded as marvelously impressive embodiments of organized capacity. The pyramids, especially those of Gizeh, while they were intended as royal tombs, have become for us an index of the Egyptian's mechanical and administrative ability to achieve, in the first great period of his national development which we call the Pyramid Age (about 3000 to 2500 B. C.).

It was this remarkable unfolding of human life, nationally organized, and proudly master of the material forces in the midst of which it had grown up, which carried the first civilization to Europe after 8000 B. C., and set going that succession of states, with civilized equipment, which is still contending for supremacy. The first venturesome voyages of Nile sailors across the eastern Mediterranean, evidently before 8000 B. C., were therefore as momentous in unfolding a new world to early man, as was the voyage of Columbus in 1492. Europe had to be discovered by civilization just as did America.

For the first thousand years after the rise of the centralized Egyptian state, the individual was lost in the development of state power and efficiency. Strangely enough, however, with the rise of a feudal state toward 2000 B. C., the spectacle of social oppression, the cry for social justice, the earliest discernible in the ancient world, awoke a response among the ruling classes. A clearly evident movement for social justice took form and produced some of the most remarkable tractates—the literature of the earliest known campaign for just treatment of the poor and the humble, which remind us of the utter-

ances of the Hebrew prophets moved by similar causes. Even the charge which the king delivered to the grand vizier when the latter assumed office was a veritable *magna charta* of justice and social kindness toward the friendless and unknown individual. The movement thus affected the organs of the state itself, which from the sovereign down, was expected to function with full consideration of the individual. This sensitiveness to social justice was part of the earliest great awakening to the imperishable value of character, both here and in the life to come. It gave us symbols like the balances of justice, and contributed much to the symbolism and to the ideals of human righteousness in the ancient world, which have become the heritage of modern times.

The struggle for imperial power in Asia, begun by Egypt in the sixteenth century B. C., not only opened the tremendous drama of imperial ambition and international rivalry, which is still going on in Europe, but revealed to Egypt expanding vistas of universal power which gave birth to a universalism able to conceive the earliest monotheism, to discern a sole God of the universe, to whom all nations were admonished by the Egyptian Pharaoh to bow down as the beneficent father of all men. Toward this lofty ideal, which in the hands of the Egyptian sovereign, failed to maintain itself in the fourteenth century B. C., the eyes of men are still looking in the present colossal collapse of what we once thought was a practicable and beneficent internationalism, but which has proven to be the old and familiar cloak of a selfish and sordid nationalism.

## England Before the Norman Conquest

BY PROFESSOR LAURENCE M. LARSON, OF THE UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS.

With the more recent chapters of English history thronged with events the importance of which reaches far beyond the narrow limits of the British kingdom, it is becoming increasingly difficult to find time and patience for the study of the earlier centuries of English life. In the minds of many teachers there is also doubt whether the study of distant ages is really worth while; in these imperialistic days when statesmen aim at world power and reckon in billions it seems futile to give precious hours to tracing the fortunes of little kingdoms that were scarcely larger than shires to-day. This objection is not wholly without force; there is much in earlier history that may and should be omitted; but there is also much that lies at the very roots of English and British development, without the knowledge of which the growth and changes of modern times will scarcely be understood. In those distant centuries the British race was slowly being formed; the English kingdom was taking shape; and England was gradually being drawn into closer relations with the more important parts of the European world.

In the study of prehistoric times there is a temptation to dwell on the peculiarities of primitive life, on the forms (such as they were) of culture and civilization. This may very properly be done as it illustrates the progress of society from the exceedingly simple forms of existence in the cave dwellings to the more complex life in the modern city. More important, however, are the facts of racial development. The Stone Worker was subdued by the more efficient warrior of the Bronze Age. The Bronze Worker in his turn had to yield to the Celt who was armed with weapons of iron. But neither of these older races was wholly wiped out, and consequently the Britons whom Cæsar described for us were a somewhat mixed people. With the Romans came soldiers and merchants from all the lands of the Mediterranean world. During the early Middle Ages came the Anglo-Saxons and the Danes. The Normans arrived in the eleventh century. Since then from time to time other non-English elements have been added to the population of Great Britain. Hodgkin's suggestion that the inhabitants of England should be called Anglo-

Celts rather than Anglo-Saxons has much in its favor; but the older strains should not be wholly ignored, and perhaps it is more nearly correct to speak of the modern Englishman as of the English race.

An important feature of English history is the many extensive and varied relations that England has established with other parts of the world. The British government and people are in certain respects interested in nearly all the lands of the earth; conversely the world is often keenly interested in the plans and fortunes of England. So far as we know the first cultured peoples that developed an interest in the British Isles were the Phœnicians and the Greeks whose traders visited Britain in the fourth century B. C. It is worth noting that British commerce which in modern times has grown to such immense proportions actually antedates the recorded history of the islands, and this fact should lead to a closer study of the physical features of the archipelago and the advantages of its geographical position.

The long period of Roman domination did not affect Britain so deeply as it affected other parts of the provincial world. It is therefore hardly expedient to dwell very long on the Roman period. In the past too much attention has been given to certain interesting details of the process of conquest and too little to the permanent results of Roman occupation. During these three centuries and a half the Britons were taught the forms of civilized life; Christianity was introduced; and the material resources of the country were developed. It is doubtless true that the departure of the legions was followed by a reaction toward barbarism; but Christianity maintained itself and sent forth missionaries like St. Patrick; when the English came they found a system of cultivated estates which probably affected their own plans of settlement and methods of agriculture; when they were ready to utilize the mineral resources of the island, they resumed work in the old mines that the Romans had opened and developed; when they began to build strongholds and cities they found the old Roman sites conveniently at hand.

The invasion of the Angles and Saxons was an event of the first importance. They built the Old English kingdom and drew its boundaries very near where they run to-day; they gave the greater part of Great Britain a new language; with their poets the greatest literature of all time had its beginning. There is, however, no need to dwell on these matters as the average text-book is quite sure to do justice to the Old English period. Unfortunately the pupil is too often made to feel that the Anglo-Saxons were the only important element in Great Britain. Doubtless they were the most important, but the native Britons, the Roman missionary, and the Danish pirate also had a share in the making of England.

In the eighth century the Germanic population of Britain was further strengthened by the invasion and settlement of the Northmen (Danes). It has been said that the passion for individual freedom and the love of a seafaring life came into the English race

with the Norse blood; this may not be entirely true, but there can be no doubt that these characteristics were intensified by the addition of this new racial element. On the political side the importance of the invasion lay in the destruction of nearly all the English kingdoms and the organization of the Danelaw on their ruins. Two facts should be carefully noted:

1. Alfred's kingdom of Wessex alone survived, and this state became the hope of all who wished to throw off the Danish yoke. The English kingdoms were never united. The Anglo-Saxon monarchy grew out of the expansion of Wessex northward into the Danelaw, a process that continued for a period of more than two generations.

2. The Danelaw was not a political unit, but a group of independent states. Consequently the Danes were not able to hold their own against the constant pressure from the south. For a long time, however, they succeeded in making Saxon rule in the northern half of England extremely uncertain.

The kingdom built up and organized by Alfred and his successors endured for nearly two hundred years. The first half of this period was an age of growth and power; the second half was an age of decline. It is customary to attribute the downfall of the West Saxon dynasty to the incompetence of King Ethelred II; no doubt the king was incompetent, at least he did not possess the strength and the qualities of statesmanship that the age required. Other considerations, however, are also important:

1. The Danelaw was disloyal, at least the men of the north gave very little assistance against the Vikings; in return the pirates usually spared this part of the kingdom.

2. There was much dissatisfaction north of the Thames with Dunstan's reforms, especially with his efforts to build up monasticism at the expense of the secular priesthood.

3. For more than thirty years the invading Danes harried the loyal Anglo-Saxon territories south of the Thames; Wessex was "bled white."

After 1016 the native English to a large extent lost control of the government of their country; the native aristocracy was largely destroyed and Cnut administered his kingdom largely by the aid of Scandinavian nobles and adventurers. His regime was scarcely popular, but it gave peace and security and the natives murmured very little after the first years. Nor were the English wholly pleased with the government of Edward the Confessor; the Northmen were driven out, but the masterful Normans were beginning to take their places.

The events that center about the battle of Hastings were full of meaning for the future of English history, and should be studied with some care. Too often the Conquest is regarded as being determined by a single battle; but the study of the year 1066 should bring out the following points:

1. England was still disunited and the reign of Edward the Confessor was not of such a character as to promote national feeling. The men of the Dane-

law, though now under English leaders, in 1066 once more refused to support a Saxon King.

2. The fate of England was virtually decided at Stamford Bridge. The enemy was defeated, but the battle seriously weakened the English army. While Harold was in the north with his forces, the Normans landed in Sussex unopposed.

The presence of the Danish alien affected the intellectual as well as the political life of the English people. It is generally held that the decline of Anglo-Saxon literature was due to the Norman conquest; as a matter of fact it began about the time of the accession of Cnut (1016). The Danelaw was the rock on which the Old English monarchy foundered.

## Suggestions for the Course in Medieval History

BY PROFESSOR DANA C. MUNRO, OF PRINCETON UNIVERSITY.

It is a commonplace that each generation re-interprets the history of the past to suit its own needs. Factors which were previously neglected are emphasized in order to explain matters which are of interest to the people who are studying the history. Examples of this tendency may be seen in the new emphasis on constitutional history which resulted from the thought aroused by the French revolution, or in the change from the history of the monarchs to that of the people, in the various countries, which was so marked a characteristic of the nineteenth century as a whole. The present generation is confronted with new problems, and naturally demands what light can be thrown upon these by history. This is entirely legitimate. But there is danger lest in the enthusiasm for the new points of view, we should neglect the well-known and fundamental features, and either pervert or caricature the history of the past.

In the articles which are to be published in this MAGAZINE points will be stressed which should receive more attention than in the past; but these articles will do far more harm than good if they lead teachers to dwell upon these points to the neglect of essential facts which are necessary for any correct interpretation of the past.

In teaching medieval history it has been customary at the beginning of the course to emphasize three factors, the Graeco-Roman civilization, the Christian Church, and the Germans. In the remainder of the course the first of these three has usually received little attention; something has been said about the influence upon the German of the Roman institutions, and especially of the Roman law; little or no emphasis has been laid upon the fact that the Roman Empire lasted on in the East for 1,000 years, although a lesson or two has usually been allotted to the later Roman, or Byzantine, Empire. One of the best of the text-books limits itself expressly to the history of Western Europe. For some time there has been a feeling that this was a mistake, and was due mainly to our ignorance of the importance and interest of the history of the Byzantine Empire. Since the war began history teachers have been constantly confronted with questions for which they had no adequate answers because of their neglect to study the history of Europe east of the Adriatic, by far the larger half of Europe.

Naturally our interest in the history of our fore-

fathers will be most keen, and no one would advocate the neglect of the fundamental facts in their development, but in teaching this history we certainly should not omit the influences exerted upon them by the higher civilization of the Empire which had its capital at Constantinople. Moreover, as the numbers of the western peoples increased and their power became greater, they were constantly brought into contact with the peoples of the East. The *Drang nach Osten* is not wholly a condition of modern times. In order to understand the results of this contact for the peoples of western Europe it is essential to study the civilization and former history of the peoples with whom they came into contact, and with whom they mixed.

Even a generation ago such a study would have been difficult. There was very little knowledge of the history of the Byzantine Empire, or of the Russians, or the Slavs in general; and in this country there was even less interest. Since that time there has been much study of these subjects; excellent books have been written, and the immense number of immigrants who have come to us from eastern Europe has forced upon our attention the necessity of studying their previous history and understanding their point of view if we are to Americanize them. Now the war has turned the attention of all of us to the problems of the Balkans, of the nearer East, and of the possibilities of success for the Russian revolution. No one of these subjects can be understood without a study of the past history.

This is a fascinating story! "The abiding power of Rome" had one of its manifestations in the Byzantine Empire, which for eight hundred years served as a bulwark to the West, Christianized and civilized the peoples of eastern Europe, maintained European commerce, and preserved for the peoples of a later age much that had been best in the civilization of Greece and of Rome.

In studying the Byzantine Empire it is necessary to take up some conditions in Asia, and especially to master the fundamental features of the Mohammedan history. Some study has frequently been given to this because of its connection with the Crusades, and because of the Moslem civilization in Spain. But too little attention has been paid to the Mohammedan caliphates, and there has not been an adequate understanding of the part which they played in influencing



the history of western Europe. The Turks and the Tartars are little more than names to the average pupil of history, and the recent revolution in Arabia seems incomprehensible because of a lack of knowledge of the past history of that country.

The routes of commerce between Europe and Asia, as well as within Europe itself, need careful attention. Especially, because it was along these routes, and because of this commerce that many ideas were imported into western Europe. The prominence of the Italian cities, the growth of heresies and free thought in southern France and other centers of trade, the Renaissance, and the Reformation itself, cannot be explained without the background of this steady

infiltration of ideas from the more advanced civilization of the East.

All of these things should be made a part of the course in history. To return to the thought of the first paragraph, the great danger is that these may be so emphasized as to exclude some of the well-known and fundamental facts which have usually been taught. This danger is all the greater because anyone who has studied these subjects and has come to have some knowledge of their intense interest, is apt to exaggerate their importance. The teacher must discriminate, not neglecting to bring out the importance of the fundamental features, whether they have usually been taught or have just been brought into prominence by the interests of to-day.

## Suggestions on the Relation of American to European History

BY PROFESSOR EVARTS B. GREENE, OF THE UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS.

In deciding to enter the great European war, the United States has realized as never before that America can no longer be regarded as a world apart. This is a fact which the teacher of American history cannot leave out of account as he plans his work for the coming year. He will naturally be thinking more than ever of the relation between our own history and that of Europe—of what America owes to the old world and what has been our special contribution to the common stock of civilization. Each teacher should, of course, work out these problems largely for himself, and the results will not all be alike; but a few suggestions are offered in this introductory article, and others will follow in later issues of this MAGAZINE.

It will certainly help us to a right interpretation of American history if we remember that it is really a part of the history of Europe; that it records, for the most part, the expansion of European peoples and European civilization. It is, therefore, not reasonable to complain, as some writers do, that we have failed to develop a culture fundamentally different from that of Europe. The culture of the United States may and should differ from that of any particular European country, as the French does from the English or the Italian from the German, but to expect it to be something essentially non-European is quite absurd.

The nucleus of this nation, the European immigrants who came here in the seventeenth century, chiefly from the British Isles, had to work almost exclusively, for the first generation at least, with the stock of ideas which they brought over with them. Governor Berkeley in Virginia had rather conservative ideas about religion and politics; Roger Williams and William Penn found in America the opportunity to try out radical theories of church and state. But, after all, the radicalism of Williams and the Quakers was just as much a European product as Berkeley's old-fashioned loyalty to Church and King.

It is, of course, true that the experience of each passing generation in the new home modified these inherited ways of thinking, and produced American "folkways" different in one way or another from those of the old country. Radicals who got off in the wilderness by themselves could try social experiments quite impossible at home. The frontier life itself, as Professor Turner has so ably pointed out, tended to change men's thinking, emancipating them from conventions, breaking down class distinctions, and stimulating self-reliance. Much was gained by this experience; but, unless we accept Rousseau's theory that the ideal state is the state of nature, something was also lost for the time being; some of the virtues, as well as the vices of civilization, were left behind to be slowly recovered as the new society developed.

What sort of civilization we should have had if the frontier had worked freely on the succeeding generations without any reinforcement of the European element, no man can tell; but of course that has practically never happened. Europe has not been for America like the God of the deists, who set the world going and then left it very much to itself. We have never been left to ourselves. Colonization, for instance, did not stop with the seventeenth century, but continued with the Scotch-Irish and German immigrants of the eighteenth century, the Germans and the Irish of the middle nineteenth century, the Scandinavians, the Mediterranean peoples, and the Slavs of the last few decades. These people have not only come as individuals to seek their fortunes, but they have often maintained a distinct community life of their own. The later immigrants especially have connected us with parts of Europe with which we had previously had little or nothing to do.

Not only has the old European blood been constantly reinfused into our society, but we have physically come much closer to Europe. The ocean is

still there, the mathematical distances remain unchanged, but the practical meaning of these facts is quite different. Throughout our so-called colonial era, the crossing of the Atlantic was a great adventure, long and full of danger. To-day a journey from New York to Liverpool takes about as many days as it then took weeks; and for the communication of important news this distance hardly counts. An interview with a politician in London or Berlin may be read the same day in Chicago or San Francisco, if our journalists think it worth while, and the censors are willing to let it pass.

But these are not the only ways in which we have been brought closer to Europe. More important still is the fact that the American environment of our individual men and women is much less different from that of Europe than it used to be. We now have many of the material advantages of an older society—a more efficient exploitation of natural resources through a complicated organization of industry and commerce. We are nearer to Europe also in many of the finer products of civilization—quite impossible for the frontiersmen—in our universities, libraries, and scientific collections; in the application of art to pictures, public buildings, and gardens.

Nor is it only in the more comfortable features of an older society that we are reproducing European conditions. We are being made to realize that our natural resources, great as they are, are not so great that we can afford to waste them. No longer are there boundless areas of free land for the worker who feels himself cramped at home. Like our cousins

across the Atlantic, we must think hard about conservation for the sake of our own future and that of coming generations. On both sides of the ocean we have the same painful contrast of luxurious wealth with the struggle for bare existence; and the same insistent demands for a radically different and more just distribution of wealth. Less and less can we feel ourselves a peculiar people; more and more we are enjoying the gains and bearing the burdens of a common civilization.

If this is true, if America and Europe are more and more sharers in a common experience, can we still think of our country as making any distinctive contribution to the common stock. If so, what is that contribution? Is it not essentially this? For three centuries, this continent has been a great laboratory for succeeding generations of Europeans. Experiments in church and state and society, in religious liberty and democracy, which could not easily be performed in the old world—a world too crowded for experiments in high explosives—could be carried on with comparative safety in the wide open spaces of young America. It is not so much that we were a unique people as that we had a unique opportunity. So it came about that the French reformers of 1789 found inspiration in the American Revolution; that half a century later European thinkers like Alexis de Tocqueville were encouraged by our experiments in religious liberty to believe that religion might live without the support of the state; that in our own time we have been hoping to make a real contribution to the safety and progress of European democracy.

## Latin American History in Our Secondary Schools<sup>1</sup>

BY N. ANDREW N. CLEVEN, PH.D., SAN DIEGO HIGH SCHOOL AND JUNIOR COLLEGE.

Professor Jastrow has again rendered the teacher of history and the educator a distinct service by calling attention to the real purpose of history. Human history, he reminds us, is a continuous evolutionary process. We may treat of particular units, or races, or peoples; or we may treat of the subject of history as a whole. Whatever may be our plan there must always be a clear conception of the essential *oneness* of human history. We may be compelled for various and sundry reasons to divide the whole subject into segments as was done by the Committee of Five. This committee gave us the four block arrangement: one block for ancient, one for modern, one for English, and one for American history with civics. This plan makes it increasingly difficult to keep clearly in mind the fundamental element of the unity of history. How is the teacher, much less the student, to know what to select and what to reject and still retain this element of unity? The four block system is admittedly inadequate in regard to the content of history. The most

glaring instance of this is the course erroneously called *American history*. What does the average senior, pursuing this subject, know about the peoples immediately to the north and the south of the United States? What does he care about the part those Americans have played in the life of our people, or the part that our people play in the lives of the British and Latin Americans? He certainly is not much concerned with Panamerican-mindedness. The almost pathetic provincialism of the average American is very generally reflected in the boys and girls of our secondary schools.

There is need, therefore, of a rearrangement of our general course in history. An enrichment and enlargement of the content of the course is imperative if we would adequately meet the needs of the times. The newer tendencies of the age in education demand the change. The colossal tragedy of the World War has focused thought on the very fundamentals of human society. Systems of education have probably never been subjected to such searching analysis as they are the present time. The keynote of the age is reconstruction: reconstruction of the whole sec-

<sup>1</sup> Paper read before the Social Science Section of the Los Angeles Teachers' Institute, December 22, 1916.

ondary school curriculum. In this process of reconstruction what is to be the fate of history as a separate subject? May we not look for it to emerge from the reconstructive process richer and larger than before? In this *newer* history there will be found large space for the history of the Americas and the Pacific. The whole course of history in the secondary schools might well be made to center about these countries as the core. It could be divided into four parts as under the old system if this be considered necessary. One division could be devoted to British America, one to the countries of the Pacific, one to the United States, and one to Latin America. There should be given in this plan a consideration of the essentials of ancient, modern, English, and Oriental history in order to give the background necessary to a comprehensive view of the modern conditions in the Americas and the Pacific. The period of discovery, exploration, and colonization of the New World and the Pacific could very well be dealt with as a whole. Following this a study could be made of the wars as political, economic, and social emancipation. These could be dealt with in the same large and comprehensive manner; and possibly with greater returns than under the old system. A study of each of the four group countries could follow this general scheme, and should result in a larger appreciation of the interdependence and interrelations of peoples and countries. It should also be conducive to that largest of all movements, the establishment of the World State. There should result a larger conception of international-mindedness, a type of mind which the exigencies of the times make imperative.

If the general course suggested above should be deemed undesirable and impracticable as a whole a separate course in Latin American history could be given in the secondary schools. The wedging of an extra subject into an already seemingly overcrowded curriculum need not revolutionize nor even impair the efficiency of the present system. The argument that the curricula are overcrowded should have no terror for the school administrator. The argument is an old one. Curricula are seldom overcrowded with essentials. If the community considers a subject essential a place will sooner or later be found for it. The course in Latin American history might well extend over a whole year, and should prove exceedingly valuable to the student. In the first place the course should enlarge and enrich the course in the history of the United States. The need of this change in the American history course was strongly emphasized at the last annual meeting of the Pacific Coast branch of the American Historical Association in San Diego, California. Professor Stephens, Professor Bolton, and others expressed themselves in no uncertain terms in this matter. There were several who wrote to me to the same effect. I give a few of these received in the preparation of this paper. The secretary to the president of the University of Oregon wrote:

"We believe that a certain amount of Latin American history should be offered in secondary schools. There is an unwarranted tendency to make American history, as it is taught in the United States, cover

only the history of the United States, utterly disregarding the history of the countries both to the north and south of us; and what other history is taught in high school rarely covers more than classical and western European history. As our relations with the countries to the south of us grow closer, it is obviously desirable that we should teach our young people the history of these countries. Several of them have histories which are as inspiring as that of our own country."

Doctor Martin, of Stanford University, favors the course in the larger high schools. A knowledge of the history of Latin America would, he claims, be a means of making the teaching of Spanish in the high schools more effective. He wrote on this subject:

"In this connection I may state that, in my opinion, there is a very unintelligent enthusiasm at the present time for Spanish in our high schools. Many of the students who flock into Spanish courses do so in the vague belief that they are fitting themselves for lucrative positions in South America. In most cases the teachers of Spanish know nothing whatever about Latin American conditions, and from this point of view the instruction is frequently valueless. I should be inclined to think that if any of these students who acquire a smattering of Spanish should take a good course in Latin American history their ends would be better met."

Professor Manning, of the University of Texas, wrote:

"I am very glad to see that you are so much interested in Latin America, and I think it entirely proper that high schools, especially those like your own, having junior college standing, should introduce an entirely separate course on the history of the the Latin American countries. Possibly that course should cover only half a year's work, instead of a whole year, which we are giving to the study here in the University of Texas, and which is being given in a few of the northern and eastern universities. There is no question but that the study of Latin American history will within a few years become as common as the study of general European history, or certainly as common as the history of any one European country. A few schools of college rank and a few of secondary rank must, of course, be leaders in doing this, and since the University of Texas is so near the border, we feel it entirely proper for us to take an advanced stand in this matter, and since you are located almost exactly on the border, I think that your school and other junior colleges of California would do well to take the lead in introducing it into the secondary schools. I have already learned that they are seriously considering this in the schools of Idaho, and have heard from numerous places elsewhere in the United States."

The essentials in the history of Latin America, like those in the traditional four block system, are suitable for our secondary schools. The subject possesses the materials necessary in any course in history in these schools. The subject matter is teachable. There is an abundance, a variety, and a richness of subject

matter that can be made both interesting and instructive to the student of secondary school age. Nor does the subject matter demand any essential modification in the method of presentation. One may use the traditional method or the newer method, and one will, it seems to me, have succeeded in enlarging the student's experience. The demand upon the teacher who would succeed is great in any course in history; but is especially so in this course. A knowledge of the subject matter is here only of the smallest importance. The teacher who would succeed must be endowed with the rare ability of being able to sympathize with peoples not of his own race. He must be something besides a mere citizen of the United States; he must be an American in the largest interpretation of that word. He must have made a good beginning in the direction of Panamerican-mindedness. I am not denying that the teacher of history in general needs the same generous attitude of mind and sympathy towards humanity. I am merely pointing out that the greater this endowment the greater the success in teaching Latin American history.

No one would attempt to teach the history of Latin America without constantly correlating it with its geography. The geographical conditions are here if anything even more a key to the proper understanding of the history of these countries than in any other course. The problems of the interplay of environment upon the individual, the individual upon environment here afford a most interesting and valuable study for the student of high school age. Instance the distinct ethnographic types already developed in Latin America. There are new races in the process of formation in the sections distinctly circumscribed by physical barriers that will become more nearly the true American race than may be possible in the United States of North America. Already the *gaucho*, *llanero*, *montero*, and *porteno* have played a role in the history of states that would be very difficult to parallel in our own country. Is there a single personality, for example, in our own country that has so thoroughly dominated the scene as did *Dr. Francia* and *Francisco Lopez* in Paraguay, *Rosas* in Argentina, *Paes* in Venezuela, or *Dias* in Mexico? The more thoroughly the lives of the men of affairs in Latin America become known the more thoroughly will the great effect of environment be understood and appreciated. It is in this connection that the study of Spanish and Portuguese could be most useful to the Americans of the North. It is well enough to study these languages as a hobby, or for their commercial importance; but there should be something more than that. These languages should be studied for what they really are a "key to unlock the treasures of American life, literature, history, and social institutions."

I need merely mention the pre-Columbian era of Latin American history to call to your minds fields of untold riches in romance, art, and history. The great wealth already accumulated and in process of accumulation makes this period one of the most valuable in all history work. The Aztec, Maya, Chibcha,

and Inca civilizations are certainly worthy of very careful study. Most of us already deal with these subjects; but they properly belong, according to our present plan, to the field of Latin American history. The age of discovery, exploration, and colonization, with the proper European background and a right conception of the motives actuating the leading personalities of the age is certainly worthy of careful study by the secondary school student. The efforts to transplant Iberian institutions in the New World should be no less instructive than the efforts of the English, French, Dutch, Swedes, or Russians in the New World. Nor should the history of the struggle of the Spanish and Portuguese for political, economic, and social independence an subsequent national solidarity be less instructive and helpful to the students of the high schools. The efforts made by the newly emancipated Latin American Republics in nation building can hardly fail to be valuable to the student of the evolution of democratic institutions in the United States. The terms "Amazing Argentina" and "Brazil—the Extraordinary"—terms current in our day—connote really colossal achievements. The problems confronting the peoples of Latin America have certainly been formidable—formidable by reason of the inexperience, inaptitude, and ill-conceived ideas concerning the fine art of self-government. The problems confronting the founders of our republic were simple indeed compared with these. Nor need the peoples of Latin America feel reticent about telling what they have actually achieved in this direction. A knowledge of these achievements should be more generally diffused among our people. There should also be a more definite understanding among the Americans of the similarity of the problems confronting the peoples of Latin America and the United States. It would be more in keeping with the dignity and standing of the United States in the Western World to treat the Latin Americans as compatriots in the effort to develop a true democracy in the New World. What a colossal task for us and for them! but one worthy of effort. In the struggle I am not so sure but that the Latin Americans would outstrip us, not excluding even the Mexicans.

The history of Latin America should be introduced into our secondary schools in order to aid in bringing about more friendly relations between the United States and Latin America. This could be more easily accomplished by a mutual understanding of each other's achievements and each other's problems. This understanding would, of course, tend to improve industrial and commercial relations between the two groups of countries. This phase of the subject is now very much to the front. I see no real reason why the schools should not render greater services in this field than they are now doing. The coastwise cities of the Americas could do very efficient work by bringing about an exchange of teachers and students in the larger cities of each country. I am less concerned with the commercial phase of the whole subject. I believe that there is something more to this subject than commerce and trade; nay, than bonds, banks,

and credit. The Second Panamerican Scientific Congress declared:

"The Congress looked beyond material interest to the things of the spirit, well knowing that an understanding based upon an appreciation of and a respect for the intellectual life and achievements of the Americas would be a great bond of sympathy between the peoples of all the American countries."

I would like to quote at length from this admirable report; but time does not permit. You remember that the Congress strongly urged that not only should the details of the lives of the liberators and statesmen be studied, but that the ideals of the different countries should become the common property of all the American Republics. The following from this same report is highly significant:

"It is gratifying to the people of the United States that so much attention to these important subjects is already given in the various American Republics, but it is a source of regret to the advocates in the United States of an enlightened and intellectual Pan Americanism that greater attention has not heretofore been given in the Republic to the north to the interesting history, the continuous development and growth and realization of the ideals of the Latin American peoples."

I commend for your careful perusal the whole of this admirable report (The Final Act by Dr. James Brown Scott. Free from Pan American Union, Washington). It is couched in words befitting the great subject with which it deals. It is both significant and

encouraging. It is an evidence of the presence in our land of individuals with the proper conception of our larger duty in this matter. For there is needed among us Americans of the North an attitude of mind and sympathy truly Panamerican. Let us hope that American provincialism will soon give way to Panamerican-mindedness and finally to International-mindedness.

"Hinter dem Gebirge sind auch Leute."

In conclusion let me quote from President Wilson's speech before the Southern Congress at Mobile, Alabama, 1918:

"I come because I want to speak of our present and prospective relations with our neighbors to the south. I deemed it a public duty as well as personal pleasure, to be here to express for myself and for the government I represent the welcome we all feel to those who represent the Latin American States.

"The future, ladies and gentlemen, is going to be very different for this hemisphere from the past. These states lying to the south of us, which have always been our neighbors, will be drawn closer to us by innumerable ties, and, I hope, chief of all, by the tie of a common understanding of each other.

"We must prove ourselves their friends and champions upon terms of equality and honor. You cannot be friends upon any other terms than upon terms of equality. You cannot be friends at all except upon terms of honor. We must show ourselves friends by comprehending their interest whether it squares with our own or not."

## A Political Generalization

BY PROFESSOR EDGAR DAWSON, HUNTER COLLEGE, NEW YORK CITY.

The goal toward which the enlightened teacher of government directs his energies is the development of a civic consciousness; it is an ethical impulse which he wishes to create, not a body of knowledge. The most anti-social boss or political ringster in public life is likely to know more about government than the most alert teacher of civics, possibly more than the most learned professor of political science. He knows all the actual current facts of government, however little he may know about the theory of it or its history. His knowledge is ample. What he lacks is what the rising citizen needs, the ethical impulse to use his citizenship in the interest of the common welfare as against a particularistic desire for the success of a part of the community. What the teacher of civics should inculcate is a consciousness of mutual dependence, the necessity for mutual helpfulness, and the means best adapted to forward social co-operation. The rising generation must feel the fabric of society about him, respect its texture and contribute to its strength.

But too much of our civics teaching has been merely descriptive of government; and largely descriptive of the worst aspects of government at that. Its object

has been to inculcate knowledge of what is falsely called actual government. The gerrymander, the rider, the joker, the strike bill, the spoils system, the activities of the boss and the heeler; all the diseases of the body-politic have been taught as if these were aspects of government rather than manifestations of the criminal instinct of persons who happen to be active in politics instead of porch-climbing or safe-blowing. It is perfectly true that light-fingered gentlemen are and always have been using social institutions as means for relieving the unsophisticated citizen of his surplus wealth; but if one were teaching the science of finance one would not lay great stress on the activities of Jim the Penman, or the expert greengoods man.

Not only is too much attention given to the activities of the parasite, but energies have been wasted in the description of purely ephemeral details such as the number of committees and their names, the number of officials and their salaries, the number of members in a representative chamber and the length of their terms, the number of judges in the courts, and a hundred other things of this sort which good citizens of mature years neither know nor care very much

about. The good citizen is not differentiated from the bad citizen by what he knows about such things as these. He is differentiated by the fact that he performs the few public acts which he does perform with reasonable intelligence; and what he needs to enable him to do this is some basic philosophy of government, some fundamental political theory. He must and will, of course, acquire knowledge of many facts of this sort, but they should be clearly recognized as a by-product of the process of securing philosophical principles.

In addition to many other generally accepted and fundamental political concepts, six may be mentioned as related to the basic problems of all public action. These may be suggested by the following six topics: Party organization; a true definition of law; the process of legislation; the organization of administration; the principle of home rule (whether municipal or national); and the federation of units for the control of common undertakings. The citizen who has thoroughly digested these six concepts and has an opinion of his own on each of them on the basis of which he may test questions that confront him, has a fair political education, whether he has ever thought seriously of bosses and rings or not.

The future citizen should learn early in his career that party activity is as natural and as unavoidable in a self-governing community as the instinct of boys to run in gangs or of cattle to travel in herds. He must know and understand that the law grows out of the common consciousness of the race and that therefore what might be called "reformers' law" is artificial, unreal, and a mere toy with which to amuse the amateur, neither aiding nor seriously injuring anyone. He must know and understand that under self-government every incorporated unit must be permitted to settle its own affairs; but that where several units are interested in the same problem, reason demands that machinery of federation be called in as a means of arriving at a joint solution.

The object of this paper is to suggest a method of treating one of these six topics in an elementary course in government for college students. The one selected is the organization of administration. The writer has been teaching this subject along the lines suggested below for several years with fairly satisfactory results.

One may begin with the assumption that there is no fundamental difference between the true method of organizing public business and the accepted method of organizing private corporations. Public business is proverbially mismanaged, partly because we distrust government, and partly because the average man is only tolerably efficient and self-government cannot rise much above his level. Public business will therefore in its management always be somewhat less well managed than the very best private corporations. But public pension systems, for example, bad as they are, are not worse managed than some highly endowed private ones. One should not be too pessimistic in judging government.

The instruction begins with a description of a busi-

ness corporation such as a railroad. The interest of the stockholders is explained; then the function of a board of directors as the representative, single-chambered legislature of the corporation. It is made clear that the railroad business is extremely simple as compared with the affairs of a state or city; but that the selection of an efficient head is still difficult enough. The administrative head of such a corporation is selected by this representative single chamber and is given complete control of the business as long as his services are retained. He is permitted to select all his subordinates; is encouraged to lead the directors in legislation if his force of will and character and his store of information are sufficient to enable him to do so. In fact, under the general management of such a man as President Underwood, of the Erie Railroad, the board of directors seems to be not much more than an observing and a safeguarding body.

From the private corporation we go to the discussion of the commission-manager plan of city government. The evolution of the plan is outlined. It is shown that the commission plan worked well enough at first when the broom was new and civic enthusiasm in Galveston and Des Moines at a high pitch; but that after the abnormal conditions had passed and life had flattened out, it was necessary to find a normal method of governing cities. The citizens of a municipality are its stockholders, they elect a board of directors large enough to be fairly representative of the composite interests of the whole city, and the directors (the commission) select a general manager and turn the city over to him for as long as he can retain their confidence. He is permitted to appoint his subordinates, more or less hampered by what we call civil service rules.

This reference to the merit system of civil service protection makes it necessary to recognize that Jacksonian Democracy brought into our government a sort of plague called the spoils system, which took deep root in a country which did not respect efficiency of any kind; a country living on the fat of new lands with inexhaustible natural resources; a country in which the orator and the general held a higher place in public esteem than the engineer, the accountant, and the chemist. In order to get rid of the relics of Jacksonian Democracy it was necessary to set up a wall of protection around public servants which has served to protect the incapable with the capable, the disloyal with the faithful; and it is rapidly becoming apparent that if the chief of the administration is selected as he should be, and given the responsibility and power he should have, much of civil service red tape may be unwound, and the administration may be given power to remove those who would as parasites abuse public confidence. The manager of a city should have a means of removing any public servant in his city, very much as the manager of the railroad may. If he cannot, then he cannot be held responsible for the efficient administration of the affairs of the city.

Next, it is unfortunately necessary to bring to the attention of the student the condition of the govern-

ment of some of our American commonwealths. It is unfortunate that young minds must be muddled by having placed before them such pictures of confusion, anarchy, formless irresponsibility, as is represented by the government of New York State and other commonwealths; but possibly such horrible examples may be useful. When it is realized that the governor has no cabinet, that the affairs of the state are conducted by some 150 to 170 boards, commissions, and other officers, serving for all sorts of different terms, appointive or elective in all sorts of ways, and removable, if at all, through methods which make it almost impossible to unseat them, the contrast between this sort of a tangled web and the beautiful system which human experience has evolved when not hampered by "politics" is apparent.

This condition of anarchy (i. e. no government), has grown out of Jacksonian principles, aided by the theory of separation of powers with checks and balances. Jackson's school seemed to think that an American was good enough to fill any position he could get, and it made but little difference to them how he got it if he were loyal to the party. This attitude, with our other unfortunate heritage, the theory of the separation of powers, threw the control of government out of the hands of the public officials into those of the private party leaders; and we shall never put it back into responsible hands except by destroying these two false concepts through educational processes.

Next is described the organization of the government of the United States, where the president is the general manager. It is true he is not elected by the representative assembly as in the case of the corporation and the municipality; the congress was not entrusted with this duty because Montesquieu, misunderstanding the government of England in the time of Walpole, who ruled all England; and supposing that a separation of powers prevailed in England, wrote that fact into a book which dazzled the eyes of our constitution makers. The result has been that our presidents were for a period selected by a caucus of congress and since then have been chosen by a quasi-representative assembly called the party convention. It is true that we go through the form of a general election in which some fifteen million people vote for a man about whom they know nothing whatever, and the candidate of that convention gets into office which can raise the greatest campaign noise, or by chance, as is frequently the case. It isn't such a bad system, after all, except for its expense, hypocrisy and sham.

The organization of our federal administration departs from the principle of administration which is being illustrated in two conspicuous respects. First the method of election is different, and we in this follow the same plan as Brazil and one or two other inconspicuous states, as against the practice of all the progressive countries of the world. The other respect in which we depart from type in our federal government is in senatorial confirmation of presidential appointments. I have sought in vain for a single instance where this power in the hands of the senate did any real good; and the examples of its harmful

results are written into every chapter of our history. Only recently President Wilson was prevented from securing the appointment to the Federal Reserve Board of a Chicago banker of the highest repute. The case of the Federal Trade Commissioner is, however, a more conspicuous example of the abuse of this arrangement.

The author of the bill which created the Federal Trade Commission, its most intelligent advocate, not a politician but a conservative reformer, a man who in New Hampshire opposed the leader of his own party because of the latter's conspicuous lack of usefulness, was rejected by the Senate at the request of this leader (a senator) and for no other reason. Any one who has instances of useful results from the existence of senatorial confirmation of appointments in any state or in the Federal system will confer a favor on the present writer by calling his attention to them.

Let us now test our principle by reference to the government which is conceded in most quarters to be the finest example of political evolution; one which has been hampered least by abstract theory; one which has been carefully guarded by safe conservatism while stimulated by a spirit of stern impatience with special privilege of any sort.

The government of England applies this principle more clearly than does any other public organization with the possible exception of the commission-manager plan of municipal government. The stockholding citizens of England elect a board of directors called a House of Commons; this House of Commons selects a general manager called the Prime Minister; the Prime Minister selects all of his immediate aides who constitute his executive committee and who are his heads of departments. There is no written constitution to limit what the Commons through the Prime Minister may do. There is a King and a House of Lords who have served as conservative influences somewhat as our written constitutions have, and we do not know whether it would be desirable to do without both written constitution and aristocratic conservatism at the same time or not.

In direct imitation of the English constitution, or under the influence of the ideas which the study of this constitution have awakened, most of the other progressive countries of the world have adopted the parliamentary system of executive organization. France, although she has a president elected for a term of years, has relegated him to a position described by the facetious remark that while our president rules without reigning and the English king reigns without ruling, the French president neither rules nor reigns. Like France and England, the other liberal countries have provided that the real head of the administration shall be the chairman of a committee of the representative assembly, shall serve as long as he can keep the confidence of the legislative assembly, and so long as he does serve shall be in practically absolute control of the administrative departments of the government. They all, of course, without much blowing of trumpets, leave most of their civil servants in se-



curity so long as they do the work for which they are paid.

It is always a matter of some surprise to Americans when they hear for the first time that so great a scholar as Professor John W. Burgess puts our presidential system into a class with that of Germany as against the other great countries where the parliamentary system has been set up. Germany and the United States are alike among the great progressive states in that they have not adopted this wise method of organizing public administration. In the United States we permit the president to be selected by private groups of politicians called political conventions. The Germans have avoided this alternative by adhering to the hereditary principle.

The fundamental difference between the German administration and ours is that the German emperor is practically hereditary and ours is not. With this exception, the president of the United States has at least as much power as the German emperor and can exercise as much influence over public affairs. It is in large measure this departure from the principle of administration which we are illustrating that causes Germany to be criticized by those who do not approve of her system. The instant a responsible prime minister is set up in Germany and the emperor recedes to such a position as is now occupied by the king of England, the main difference between those two governments will disappear. The psychology of the people is different, and they would doubtless use the machine differently, but the machine would be the same and it would be called democratic government, because it would be an organization through which the will of the majority of the people of the country is expressed in political action.

There is yet another aspect of this organization which may be emphasized for the reason that many persons confuse the difference between policy-determining officers who are frequently changed because they complete the making of laws by giving the first impulse to their administration, between such policy-determining officials and persons who are merely administrative officers—that is, persons who are not asked to interpret law but to perform service under the law, such as chemists, mechanics, biologists, accountants, architects, stone masons, street sweepers, gunners, sailors, coal heavers, doctors, farm specialists, teachers, mail carriers, stenographers, engravers, brick layers, paper makers, printers, book binders, and a score of other occupations employing in the United States service nearly 800,000 persons. These persons are employed by the government because of the facility and skill with which they do certain kinds of work. They have nothing to do with the policy of the government. It makes no more difference to the government what the political theories of the ship builder are if he can build ships than it makes to us whether our shoemaker is a Democrat or a Republican. We require him to make shoes and do it well, and then he may vote as he likes so far as we are concerned. Such persons are called civil servants or servants of the state. In most civilized countries they

are regarded as practically permanent after they have once been appointed, as much so as are our judges or our school teachers where the schools are well organized. They may exercise all the normal functions of citizens without fear of being disturbed in their occupations; but they recognize of course that among the normal functions of the citizen is not included what President Cleveland called "offensive partisanship."

We have viewed the organization of the public administration from the citizen through the representative assembly and the head of the organization downward to the civil servants. It may now be profitable to glance at the structure from the civil servants upward. Suppose there are fifty thousand permanent employees of some political unit such as the City of New York or the State of Connecticut. These fifty thousand persons are engaged in all the various kinds of work mentioned above. Their work goes steadily on from year to year and decade to decade just as if administrations did not change. The chemist makes his analyses, the draftsman perfects his charts, the biologist dissects his specimens, the engineer surveys his problems, the criminologist studies his charges; all go on as steadily as does the research of the private scholar.

But the policies of the government are constantly changing; and it is necessary for the change of public policy, the new direction given to it, to be reflected in the conduct of the departments of public endeavor in which these permanent servants (I use the word in its highest sense) are engaged. We look from the biologist in the bureau of entomology in the department of agriculture up to the newly-selected head of the administration, who represents the majority of the representative assembly. This assembly has been elected possibly under a mandate to give a new direction to the work of the department of agriculture; and it is the duty of the head of the administration to obey that mandate. He wishes to impress the public will upon the bureau of entomology, but he has ten or a dozen other departments which are also important. He cannot give all of his time to this one, yet he is responsible to the state or the city for the conduct of this one. There remains for him to multiply himself as the representative of public opinion. His work is political, not scientific or mechanical as is that of the civil servants. His duty is to bring the public will to bear on the administrative departments. He must appoint political aides who in sympathy with his views of the public mandate will bring him into relation with the departments, each of these aides being appointed the head of one department, and, if the department be large, give several assistants, who are also political or policy directing officials.

The astounding ignorance of this principle which prevails in many of our states, cannot be better indicated than by citing the fact that these heads of departments, whose sole function must be to bring the work of the departments into line with the policies of the administration, are elective, independent of the head of the administration, and therefore more likely to work confusion than efficiency. Such an organiza-

tion of a state is what is called, in common parlance, the long ballot; and its antithesis, expressing the principle which we have been discussing, has been dubbed for purposes of propaganda, the short ballot.

In conclusion, then, our principle of administration may be summed up as follows: The administration should have an actual head, one person, who is conspicuously responsible; this head should not be popularly elected, but should be the leader of a majority of the legislative assembly. He should appoint all heads of departments and such assistants to these heads as are needed to bring him into intelligent co-operation with the departments. The civil servants who really constitute the departments should be permanently engaged, but should be easily removable for cause without appeal to courts, which appeal would imply some sort of proprietorship in their positions.

Is it not possible even in the schools to substitute for the mere description of government a method in which a limited number of principles, generally accepted by the advocates of conservative political reform, may be made the basis of instruction and the descriptive facts of present constitutional arrangements treated as illustrative of these principles? No one would maintain that such a principle as has been outlined in this paper is accepted by everyone as finally demonstrated, like a mathematical proposition, but it may be maintained that such a principle would give to a class a basis for intelligent discussion and difference of opinion and would make it possible to

develop in the mind of the pupil some processes of political thought which might remain with him after all the facts of government which he learned for examination had departed with his mathematics and his irregular verbs.

If a high school boy is taught, as is often the case in good schools, that government grows out of the conditions of the community, as it does; that our government has certain characteristics which are exceedingly objectionable to all good citizens, is is the case; that our government is characterized by a system of separation of powers which has never been anything more than a plague to our institutions; and if he is then given no introduction to a philosophy which may lead him to think soberly enough about the basic principles of government to see that we might evolve a system out of our present conditions which would throw aside this superstition of the separation of powers, is he not likely to become pessimistic and indifferent as a result of his political education? Is he not likely to look upon politics as something that the busy man must put up with as he does with the other results of weak human nature? Is he not likely, as many of our respected business men do, to assume that democracy is hopeless and the only wise thing to do is to keep on the good side of the bosses, subscribe generously to their support and let the reformers, harmless lunatics, amuse themselves as they will so long as they do not interfere with business?

## Historical Novels in American History

BY PROFESSOR E. L. BOGART, OF THE UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS.

The dangers and the value of the historical novel in connection with the study of history were interestingly set forth in a recent number of *THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE*.<sup>1</sup> In a course for freshmen on the economic history of the United States, the following semester at the University of Illinois, inquiry was made as to the amount of reading along this line, so far at least as concerned American history, by the members of the class. As they were scarcely acquainted with the literature in this field, a list of books illustrating various phases of the economic and social development in the United States was drawn up and posted in the library. It is too early yet to speak of the results of this experiment, but as the list may be of interest to other teachers of history, it is reproduced herewith. Juvenile books are not included.

<sup>1</sup>"The Historical Novel: Fiction as History," by Elbridge Colby; and "The Value of Historical Fiction," by Kate M. Munro. *THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE*, VII, 264-268 (October, 1916).

### LIST OF HISTORICAL NOVELS, ILLUSTRATING SOME PHASES OF ECONOMIC OR SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT IN AMERICAN HISTORY. COMPILED BY E. L. BOGART.

#### 1. COLONIAL PERIOD.

##### a. General.

1620. Austin, Mrs. J. G. "David Alden's Daughter." Twelve stories, each representing some noteworthy character or epoch of colonial times.

1789. Cooke, Grace M., and MacGowan, Alice. "Return." Georgia and the sea islands.

1680. Dickson, Harris. "The Black Wolf's Breed." Hero is a French captain who served under Bienville, governor of Louisiana, during the days of Louis XIV. Gives a good idea of frontier life in a new European settlement among the Indians.

1691. Dix, Beulah Marie. "Mistress Content Cradock." The religious exiles in the old colonizing days. Many local historical allusions.

1700. Hawthorne, Nathaniel. "Twice-told Tales." Many compact pictures of New England life in the eighteenth century.

1687-47. Henham, Ernest George. "The Plowshare and the Sword: A Tale of Empire." A story of Quebec, New England and Acadia; French and English methods of colonization; the Indians, etc.

1688. Holland, Josiah Gilbert. "The Bay Path." A story of early settlers in the Connecticut valley, aiming at quiet portraiture of life and character.

1759-68. Parker, Sir Gilbert. "The Seats of the Mighty." The struggle which dispossessed France and enthroned England in North America.

1750. Spielhagen, Friedrich. "The Block House on the Prairie." The life of the German Pioneers in America in middle of seventeenth century, and the difficulties and hardships of their existence on the outskirts of civilization.

#### b. By Colonies.

##### *Maine.*

1625. Thompson, D. P. "Gant Gurley." Border life.

##### *Maryland.*

1644. Goodwin, Maud Wilder. "Sir Christopher: A Romance of a Maryland Manor in 1644." Adventures of a Somersetshire knight, a Cavalier, in Maryland.

1686. Thruston, Lucy M. "Mistress Brent." Maryland.

##### *Massachusetts.*

1652. Dix, B. M. "The Making of Christopher Ferringham." Massachusetts in 1652, with some careful pictures of the times, Quaker persecutions.

1650. Hawthorne, Nathaniel. "The Scarlet Letter." One of the great moral tragedies of fiction. The Puritans in Massachusetts.

1640-50. Humphrey, Frank Pope. "A New England Cactus; and Other Tales." Village life in Massachusetts and Rhode Island in the Puritan times of the seventeenth century.

1675. Ingraham, J. H. "Captain Kyd." Massachusetts.

1686. Shaw, Adèle Marie. "The Coast of Freedom." The adventurous times of the first self-made American—Sir. Wm. Phipps, Governor of Massachusetts. Boston, time of Cotton Mather and the persecutions for witchcraft.

1665. Stimson, F. J. "King Noanett." Indentured servants in old Virginia and town lands in Massachusetts Bay.

##### *New York.*

1756. Barr, Amelia E. "The Bow of Orange Ribbon." The old Dutch folk of New

York, sturdy, quiet and godly folk, and the rakish and dare-devil soldiery of King George just before the War of Independence.

1765. Barr, Amelia E. "The Strawberry Handkerchief." New York in the Stamp Act period.

1750. Barrett, W., and Barron, E. "In Old New York."

1640-50. Belden, Jessie Van Zile. "Antonia." A tale of Colonial New York and Dutch colonists in Hudson River districts.

1689-90. Bynner, E. L. "The Begum's Daughter." A tale of New Amsterdam in 1689; the episode of the Leisler rebellion in New York is admirably told.

1757. Clark, Imogen. "The Dominie's Garden." Reproduces manners and atmosphere of Dutch society in eighteenth century.

1750. Cooper, J. Fenimore. "Satanstoe." Colonial life in Westchester County.

1750. Paulding, J. K. "The Dutchman's Fireside." New York.

1715. Rayner, Miss E. "Free to Serve: A Tale of Colonial New York." Manners and family life in early eighteenth century. New York.

1769-76. Roberts, C. G. D. "Barbara Ladd." Connecticut in 1769 and New York during the Revolution.

##### *Plymouth Colony.*

1620. Austin, Mrs. J. G. "Standish of Standish." A tale of the pilgrims of Plymouth Colony, and of Miles Standish.

1620. Austin, Mrs. J. G. "Betty Alden." The first-born of the Pilgrims. Sequel to "Standish of Standish."

1670. Austin, Mrs. J. G. "A Nameless Nobleman; and Dr. Le Baron and His Daughters." (Sequel.) Stories of Plymouth Colony.

1620. Cheney, H. V. "A Peep at the Pilgrims." Plymouth Colony.

1620. Child, L. M. "Hobomok." Plymouth Colony.

1620 (?). Dix, B. M. "Soldier Rigdale." Period of the Pilgrim Fathers.

1622. Mothey, J. L. "Merry-Mount." Plymouth Colony.

1650. Webb, Mrs. J. B. "The Pilgrims of New England." Plymouth Colony.

##### *Virginia.*

1607. Cooke, John Esten. "My Lady Pokahontas." Settling of Jamestown and trading with the Indians.

1768-65. Cooke, J. E. "The Virginia Comedians." Scenes of life in Williamsburg, once the centre of Southern life; the streets and mansions, taverns and theater, old courtly society.

1622. Goodwin, Maud W. "The Head of a Hundred in the Colony of Virginia."  
 1676. Goodwin, Maud W. "White Aprons." Bacon's Rebellion in Virginia.  
 1727. Johnston, Mary. "Audrey." Romantic story of Virginia; the hero, a rich proprietor and man of fashion; the heroine, the daughter of a backwoodsman.  
 1621. Johnston, Mary. "To Have and to Hold." A beautiful maid-of-honor flees to Virginia with a cargo of brides sent out by the London Company. She marries a rough settler who defends her against her pursuers. Full of vigorous movement.  
 1649-51. Johnston, Mary. "Prisoners of Hope." Romance of Virginia in Restoration times. Hero is a convict sold into slavery, who joins rebellion led by Sir John Berkeley. Much description of landscape and stately homes of Virginia.  
 1649-51. Kennedy, Sara Beaumont. "The Wooing of Judith." Virginia at the time when it was the refuge of the Cavaliers, after the execution of Charles II.  
 1609. Kester, Vaughan. "John o' Jamestown." Captain John Smith and the settling of Jamestown.  
 1676. Tucker, St. George. "Hansford." Bacon's rebellion.  
 1682. Wilkins, Mary E. "The Heart's Highway." Deals with Virginia under Charles II and the tobacco riots after Bacon's rebellion.

## 2. THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION.

1781. Chambers, R. W. "The Reckoning." The war as it affected the great landed families in the northern part of New York.  
 1780. Churchill, Winston. "Richard Carvel." Maryland and its fine old landed gentry. Autobiography dealing with period of war.  
 1767-76. Coffin, Charles C. "Daughters of the Revolution and their Times." Outbreak of the Revolution, the state of public feeling, Boston Tea Party, Boston massacre, etc.  
 1767-76. Devereux, Mary. "From Kingdom to Colony." Life in New England in the early days of the Revolution.  
 1767. Farmer, James. "Brinton Eliot: From Yale to Yorktown." Undergraduate life at Yale before the war, and adventures with the American army. Fiercely anti-British in sentiment.  
 1780. Ford, P. L. "Janice Meredith." Battles, historical incidents, celebrities presented with accuracy.  
 1757-80. Frederic, Harold. "In the Valley." Life among the Dutch of the Mohawk Valley. Deeply prejudiced against the British cause.  
 1757-80. Kennedy, J. P. "Horseshoe Robinson." South Carolina during the war, founded upon personal memories of actual events.  
 1778-6. Kenyon, Charles. "Won in Warfare." Frontier fighting at the outbreak of the War of Independence.  
 1776-9. Rayner, Emma. "Doris Kingsley." South Carolina.  
 1775-7. Thompson, Daniel Pierce. "The Green Mountain Boys" and "The Rangers" (sequel). A romance of the settlement of Vermont, showing quarrels between Vermont and New York.  
 1775. Tilton, Dwight. "My Lady Laughter." The siege of Boston.

## 8. FROM THE REVOLUTION TO THE WAR OF 1812 (1788-1814), INCLUDING THE WAR OF 1812.

- 1757-1804. Atherton, Gertrude. "The Conqueror." The true and romantic story of the birth, life and death of Alexander Hamilton, statesman, orator, and soldier. (Originally intended for a biography.)  
 1808. Banks, Nancy H. "Round Anvil Rock." Incidents of early days of Kentucky.  
 1812-14. Barr, Amelia E. "The Belle of Bowling Green." Life among the wealthy Dutch inhabitants of New York, who lived aloof from the war, but were not unaffected by it.  
 1791-2. Barr, Amelia E. "The Maid of Maiden Lane." The year 1791 in New York City—a momentous year. Shall New York or Philadelphia be the seat of government? Influx of French refugees, division of opinion regarding English rights in lost colonies, etc.  
 1786-7. Bellamy, Edward. "The Duke of Stockbridge." Massachusetts: Shay's Rebellion.  
 1800. Cable, G. W. "The Granddissimes." New Orleans and its Creole inhabitants as they were a century ago.  
 1808. Carpenter, Edward Childs. "The Code of Victor Jallot." New Orleans.  
 1780-1804. Churchill, Winston. "The Crossing." Chronicle of the great westward movement into the Mississippi valley.  
 1811. Eggleston, Edward. "Rory." Life in a town of southern Indiana at the time of the Tippecanoe campaign.  
 1790. Hale, E. Everett. "East and West: A Story of New Ohio." Settling of Ohio by New Englanders at close of eighteenth century.  
 1808. Hale, E. Everett. "Philip Nolan's Friends." Time of the Louisiana purchase.  
 1812-28. Hancock, Albert E. "Bronson of the Rabble." Philadelphia.

1800. Judd, Sylvester. "Margaret." New England life and character.

1800. Stowe, Mrs. Harriet Beecher. "The Minister's Wooing." Newport people early in nineteenth century, especially their Puritanical life and their sombre religious creed.

1800. Stowe, Mrs. Harriet Beecher. "Old-time Folks" and "Sam Lawson's Oldtown Fireside Stories." Portraiture of character and manners in a Massachusetts village.

#### 4. FROM THE WAR OF 1812 TO THE CIVIL WAR (1814-1860).

##### a. The East.

1861. Beecher, Henry Ward. "Norwood, or Village Life in New England." Life in a thriving village just before the war.

1813-58. Judd, Sylvester. "Margaret: A Tale of the Real and Ideal, of Blight and Bloom." Life of a New England village.

1820-80. Potter, David. "The Lady of the Spur." Southwest New Jersey.

1825. Sedgwick, Catherine Maria. "Hope Leslie." Primitive life in a New England homestead.

1860. Smith, F. Hopkinson. "The Fortunes of Oliver Horn." Society at Washington and New York and in the South before and during the Civil War.

##### b. The Middle West before the Civil War.

1850. Allen, James Lane. "A Kentucky Cardinal." American manners.

1850. Banks, Nancy H. "Oldfield." Life and manners in a country town in Kentucky.

1848. Bonner, Geraldine. "The Emigrant Trail." Missouri frontier at the time of the emigration to California.

1856. Brown, Katherine Holland. "Diane." Story of a communistic settlement of French people on the Mississippi; the traffic in runaway slaves, John Brown, Abolitionists, etc.

1856. Curwood, J. Oliver. "The Courage of Captain Plum." Shores of Lake Michigan; Mormons.

1830-85. Eggleston, Edward. "The Graysons: A Story of Illinois." Detailed pictures of turbulent life of the pioneers. Lincoln is introduced.

1880-85. Eggleston, Edward. "The Hoosier Schoolmaster." Picture of the lawless, homely pioneer life of mid-century Indiana, by a man who was an itinerant preacher in the West, and knew the life intimately.

1881. Gale, O. M., and Wheeler, Harriet. "A Knight of the Wilderness." Middle West; settlers and Indians, Lincoln and Davis in early period.

1800-25. Irving, Washington. "Adventures of Captain Bonneville." Adventure in Western North America.

1830. Kirkland, Joseph. "Zury, the Meanest Man in Spring County" and "The McVeys: an Episode." Illinois in the pioneer days, portraying colorless life of prairies.

1880. Kirkman, M. M. "The Romance of Gilbert Holmes." The far west in the thirties.

1860. Lloyd, John Uri. "Springtown on the Pike." Kentucky in the early sixties.

1850. Miller, Lewis B. "The White River Raft." A raft voyage down the Mississippi River; river life.

1800. Pidgin, C. F. "Blennerhassett." Time of Aaron Burr.

1840. Roberts, C. H. "Down the O-hi-O." Rural life among the Quakers on the Ohio before the war.

1838. Tourg e, A. W. "Figs and Thistles." Realistic stories of the rough and rollicking life in pioneer Ohio.

1880. Trollope, Frances. "The Domestic Manners of the Americans." Result of a three years' life in America for business purposes. Keen and caustic, it aroused resentment in the United States.

##### c. The Far West before the Civil War.

1886. Atherton, Gertrude. "The Valiant Runaway." California before the Union.

1849. Canfield, C. L. "The City of Six." Placer mining in California.

1840. Carpenter, E. Childs. "Captain Courtesy." California.

1880-85. Harte, Bret. "Gabriel Conway." A sensational story of California in the lawless early fifties.

1860. Harte, Bret. "On the Old Trail." Life in Sierra Nevada is presented realistically.

##### d. Slavery and the South before the Civil War.

1850. Adams, M. "The Sable Cloud." Slavery and southern society.

1850. Cable, G. W. "Dr. Sevier." The prosperous world of New Orleans before the war.

1855-6. Conway, Moncure Daniel. "Pins and Palm." Detailed account of conditions in the North and South just before the war. A pair of friends, northerner and southerner, at Harvard, quarrel on slavery questions, and each agrees to reside a year in the other's country.

1800. Cooke, J. E. "Leather Stocking and Silk." Valley of Virginia.

1850. Mrs. Dupuy. "The Planter's Daughter." Slavery and southern society.

1850. Eggleston, George Cary. "Dorothy South." A love story of Virginia just before the war.

1857. Eggleston, George C. "Two Gentlemen of Virginia." The slave question.

- 1850-60. Harris, Joel Chandler. "Free Joe." Pictures of Georgian life before and after the war; dwells on kindlier aspects of relation between master and slave.
1850. Hungerford, J. "The Old Plantation." Slavery and southern society.
1850. Ingraham, J. H. "The Sunny South." Slavery and southern society.
- 1850-60. Kelly, Florence F. "Rhoda of the Undergrounds." Question of slavery.
1815. Kennedy, J. P. "Swallow Barn." Virginian life.
1880. Richardson, Norval. "The Lead of Honor." Natches, Mississippi.
1850. Stowe, Mrs. Harriet Beecher. "Uncle Tom's Cabin." An emotional account of the evils of slavery.
1840. Tiernan, Mary Spear. "Homoselle." Life and manners on the James River in the ante-bellum period.
1880. Tiernan, Mary Spear. "Suzette." A placid picture of family life in Richmond of an old-fashioned and genial society, which looked on slavery very much as a sacred institution.
1850. Woolson, Constance Fenimore. "East Angels." Home life in Georgia before the war.

#### 5. Civil War.

- 1861-5. Bachellor, Irving. "Eben Holden." New York journalistic attitude during the war.
- 1861-5. Child, L. M. "A Romance of the Republic." Privateering in the Civil War.
- 1860-5. Churchill, Winston. "The Crisis." An honest and painstaking attempt to explain the causes of the Civil War.
1861. Eggleston, George Cary. "The Master of Warlock." Virginia in the early days of the war.
- 1861-5. Hancock, Albert Elmer. "Henry Bourland the Passing of a Cavalier." The author, a Northerner, tries to understand the South during the war and reconstruction. Urgent problems are handled suggestively.
- 1861-5. Harris, Joel Chandler. "Tales of the Home Fold in Peace and War." Stories on all kinds of subjects from negroes to babies, dealing with the people at home in Georgia during the war.
- 1861-5. Morris, Gouverneur. "Aladdin O'Brien." A Northern story of the whole course of the war, but fairly impartial. Opens in New England, but follows the story in the South.
- 1861-5. Naylor, J. Ball. "The Kentuckians." Domestic scenes apart from the war in Ohio.
- 1861-6. Page, Thomas Nelson. "The Burial of the Guns, and Other Stories." The South before and after the war, with affection for the old patriarchal society, but without blindness to its darker side.
- 1861-6. Page, T. N. "Red Rock." Civil war and reconstruction. Red Rock plantation and its strange vicissitudes of ownership.
- 1861-5. Page, T. N. "Two Little Confederates." Two boys left on a plantation while the men are at war.
- 1861-5. Seawell, M. E. "The Victory." Virginia plantation during the Civil war.
1861. Webster, Henry K. "Traitor or Loyalist." North Carolina; the blockade and the cotton traders.

#### 6. Since the Civil War.

1865. Adams, Andy. "The Outlet." Realistic narrative of a great cattle drive from Texas to the North.
- Benton. "On Many Seas." An American sailor's experience.
- Bisland, Elizabeth. "A Candle of Understanding." Scene is laid in a sugar plantation in Louisiana.
1870. Bonner, Geraldine. "The Pioneer." Nevada and California.
- 1865-80. Bradley, A. G. "Sketches from Old Virginia."
- 1865-80. Cable, G. W. "John March, Southerner." A story of reconstruction. Scene is laid in Suez, an old town battered by the recent Civil War, and now the meeting place of Northern promoters and irreconcilable Southerners.
1867. Carr, Sarah Pratt. "The Iron Way." California, when the Central Pacific Railway was being completed.
- Coolidge. "Hidden Water." Cattle and sheep wars on the ranges of Arizona.
1865. Dixon, Thomas, Jr. "The Clansman." Story of the Ku Klux Klan.
- Foote, Mary Hallock. "Cœur d'Alene." Silver miners in Idaho.
- Garland, H. "The Lion's Paw."
- Garland, H. "The Forest Ranger."
- Glasgow, Ellen. "The Deliverance." A tobacco plantation in Virginia.
1865. Hough, Emerson. "The Girl at the Half-way House." Picture of life in the West at the time of the general movement to undeveloped lands that took place after the Civil War.
1870. Jackson, Helen Hunt. "Ramona." Written to expose the injustice of the United States Government's policy toward the Indians. Scene is laid in southern California.
- Kemp, Matt. "Boss Tom." The anthracite coal miners.
1890. Norris, Frank. "The Octopus." The wheat ranches of California and the Southern Pacific Railroad.

1890. Norris, Frank. "The Pit." The wheat market of Chicago.
- Parker. "The Magnetic North." Gold seekers in Alaska.
1870. Paterson, Arthur Henry. "Son of the Plains." Exciting story of the Santa Fe trail in the early seventies, before the railways were built.
1900. Richardson. "The Long Day." Women wage-earners in New York City.
1900. Sinclair, Upton. "The Jungle." The beef-packing industry in Chicago.
1865. Thanet, Octave. "Expiation." Social conditions in Arkansas at the close of the war.
1870. White, Stewart Edward. "The Blazed Trail." Realistic account of logging in Michigan.
1870. White, S. E. "The Riverman." (Sequel to the above.)
1870. White, S. E. "The Westerners." Story of the western plains in the days of frontier wars with the Sioux Indians.
- Winter. "A Prize to the Hardy." The wheat farms of Minnesota.
- Wright. "Where Copper was King." Copper mining on Lake Superior.

## Notes from the Historical Field

An interesting method of teaching ancient history has been adopted by Miss Florence Bernd, of Macon, Ga. Miss Bernd has encouraged her pupils to sketch cartoons illustrating various phases of ancient history. The cartoons are not only interesting sketches, but they are accompanied with many remarks showing that the pupils in the class appreciate the thoughts and actions of the ancient Greeks.

The Annual Year Book for 1917 of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace has appeared. Instead of being put out of business by the devastating war, the trustees of the Endowment profess to see in existing conditions an opportunity to reconstruct the international organization of the world. The trustees declared in April, 1917, their belief that "the most effectual means of promoting durable international peace is to prosecute the war against the imperial government of Germany to final victory for democracy in accordance with the policy declared by the President of the United States." At the same time the trustees appropriated \$500,000 to aid in the restoration of devastated homes in France, Belgium, Servia, and Russia.

Mr. Howard C. Hill, of the Milwaukee State Normal School, has accepted the position of head of the History Department of the University High School of the University of Chicago. Mr. Hill has been active in organizations of history teachers in the Middle West. He is president of the Association of Wisconsin Normal School Teachers.

A revised edition of Professor P. O. Ray's "Introduction to Political Parties and Practical Politics" has appeared. The revised copy includes new material relating to national conventions, woman suffrage and organization of women votes, preferential voting, absentee voting, and Tammany Hall organization.

"History" for July, 1917, contains a lengthy article upon "Irish National Tradition," by Alice Stopford Green. The writer remarks that "statesmen have forgotten to reckon with the power of a thousand years of national tradition, and its hidden forces of spiritual resistance." Other articles deal with the history of education and with the problems of teaching history in girls' secondary schools.

Professor Carl Becker contributes to the Minnesota History Bulletin for May, 1917, an article upon "The Monroe Doctrine and the War." The writer holds a triumphant Germany would be more ominous than the Holy Alliance ever was; England defeated would be a more fatal reverse for the United States in 1917 than the restoration of the South American republics to Spain would have been in 1823.

## SCHOOLS AND THE WAR.

Since last April many agencies in different parts of the country have been at work striving to present to the teachers and pupils of the country the facts concerning the present world conflict. Some of these efforts have come to the attention of the editor of THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE, and brief notes concerning them are given below. It is not supposed that this list is at all comprehensive. The editor will welcome notes concerning such activities in any part of the country, and will be glad to receive copies of literature bearing upon the war which have been prepared by local agencies. Will the readers of the MAGAZINE aid in making this list more complete by sending such publications to the editor?

The Committee on Public Information, Washington, D. C., has organized a sub-division of its work, entitled, "The Division of Civic and Educational Co-operation," of which Professor Guy Stanton Ford, of the University of Minnesota, is director. This division is issuing a series of pamphlets relating to the war. The first issued was "President Wilson's War Message and the Facts Behind It." A second pamphlet was "How the War Came to America." It has recently issued a "National Service Handbook" of 246 pages containing information about domestic welfare; European war relief; religious organizations; professional men and women; war finance; industry, commerce and labor; agriculture and the food supply; the civil service; medical and nursing service; the army; the navy; aviation; together with the names of public and semi-public organizations and maps and other illustrations.

The Division of Civic and Educational Co-operation of the Committee on Public Information has in course of preparation "An Anthology of War Prose and Poetry" and a series of war information pamphlets in which the following are announced: "The Nation in Arms" by Secretaries Lane and Baker; "The Government of Germany," by Professor C. D. Hazen; "From the Spectator to Participant," by Professor A. C. McLaughlin, and "American Loyalty by Citizens of German Origin."

The Committee on Public Information issues a daily paper called "The Official Bulletin," giving official announcements in connection with governmental business. The subscription rate is five dollars a year.

A group of historians met in Washington in the spring and organized a "National Board for Historical Service." The Board has been actively engaged during the summer in co-operating with the Committee on Public Information, the Bureau of Education, and various other departments and officials in Washington. It furnished several articles for THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE in June, 1917, and circulated a number of copies of that issue, together with



reprints of Professor McLaughlin's article. It entered into active correspondence and co-operation with historians throughout the country in the proper presentation of the war to students in schools and colleges.

The National Board for Historical Service, as mentioned elsewhere in this number of the *MAGAZINE*, has supervised the preparation of the series of articles for ancient, English, European and American history which will appear in *THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE* for the next few months.

Through the National Board for Historical Service, prizes to school teachers have been offered in fourteen States, as follows: New York, New Jersey, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Virginia, Tennessee, North Carolina, Indiana, Illinois, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Ohio, and California.

These prizes are to be given for the best essays upon the subject, "Why the United States is at War," and are offered in separate groups to teachers in public high schools and to teachers in public elementary schools. The prizes vary from \$75 to \$10 in each group in each one of the thirteen States. The essays will be read and the awards made under the direction of the Board.

State Commissioner Calvin N. Kendall, of New Jersey, issued to the schools of the State a letter addressed to teachers and school officials in which he emphasized the peculiar duties and obligations under which history teachers labor at the present time.

The State Historical Society of Iowa has begun the publication of a series of small pamphlets entitled, "Iowa and War," to be published monthly. The first number (July, 1917) is a description of Old Fort Snelling, by M. L. Hansen. The number for August gives an account of "Enlistments from Iowa During the Civil War," and is prepared by J. E. Briggs.

"Sources of Material of the War" is the title of a pamphlet issued by the State Normal School at Warrensburg, Mo., dated August, 1917, and signed by the president of the school, Dr. E. L. Hendricks.

The address of Secretary of War Baker upon "The War and Colleges," delivered in Washington on May 5, 1917, has been printed by the American Association for International Conciliation (New York City).

The United States Bureau of Education will publish shortly a pamphlet entitled, "History and the Great War; Opportunity for History Teachers." This has been prepared by the National Board for Historical Service in co-operation with a number of historians.

The Philadelphia School Mobilization Committee has distributed to the school teachers of Philadelphia a series of pamphlets bearing upon the war. The first was a conversation between a father and his son upon the character and nature of the war entitled, "Bobbie and the War." The second was a general statement of "What the United States Stands for in the War," and the third entitled, "Democracy and Autocracy Compared," dealt largely with the government of Prussia.

The Toledo (O.) Patriotic League has issued a four-page bulletin entitled, "The Cause of America," in which the position is taken that the spirit of the patriots who fought at Lexington, Bunker Hill, Yorktown, Gettysburg, Santiago and Manila Bay is with us in the new war for freedom.

"Why We Are at War" is the title of a small book published by Harper & Brothers (fifty cents, net), which contains President Wilson's messages from January 22 to April 2, 1917, together with the presidential proclamation of April 6 and the message to the American people of April 15.

Bibliographies of the European war appeared in *THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE* for June, 1917, prepared by Professor C. D. Hazen and Professor George M. Dutcher.

Mr. Herman H. B. Meyer, Chief Bibliographer of the Library of Congress, has completed a pamphlet entitled, "The United States at War; Organizations and Literature," which gives references to general bibliographies, and also mentions the literature published by many unofficial voluntary organizations.

It is announced that the National Geographic Society will issue in the near future in the "National Geographic Magazine" a complete story of the flags of the world illustrated with a remarkable series of 1,200 flags in accurate colors, and giving also the seals of the various States, the flags of the rulers of other nations of the world, and some historic banners of American history.

The faculty of Columbia University began the publication in April, 1917, of a series of practical papers entitled, "Columbia University War Papers."

"American Industry in War Time" is the title of a semi-monthly periodical published in Washington, D. C.

At the Harvard Summer School of Arts and Sciences, four lectures a week were given upon the subject, "Historical Aspects of the Present War." Among the topics treated were "The War and the Editor," by Professor C. H. Haskins; "Historical Antecedents of the War," by Professor A. C. Coolidge; "Phases of Actual War in France," by Commandant Hall Azam; "Economic Aspects of the War," by Professor E. F. Gay; "Russia and the War," by Professor R. H. Lord; "South America and the War," by Dr. J. Klein; "Some Lessons of American Military History," by Professor R. M. Johnston; and "The United States and the War," by Professors A. B. Hart and William MacDonald.

## HOLD TO SCHOOL STANDARDS DURING WAR.

### PROCLAMATION.

Whereas, In every great national crisis it is imperative that the people maintain a sane and reasonable relation to the spiritual forces without which the nation cannot endure; and

Whereas, The unreflecting may be led to urge their children to remain out of school or to attend only intermittently during the crisis of this war period; and

Whereas, It is the wish of the national Government, and it is my opinion, that the schools and colleges should remain open and that the efficiency of the schools should be increased and not diminished, and it is impossible to maintain or promote the spiritual efficiency of our people unless attendance at school be maintained at a maximum and teachers be secured whose spiritual concern and professional equipment are of the highest,

Therefore, I, Martin Grove Brumbaugh, Governor of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, having in mind the abiding good of our people, the continuing glory of our country and the highest patriotic service one generation renders to another, do hereby call upon and request that in Pennsylvania education be kept at a high standard and that attendance at school and college of our children and youths be urged and supported by public opinion and by all public agencies that avowedly seek to form the public mind.

There is immediate need of instruction along all patriotic and practical lines. The nation needs trained men, and trained men are best secured through right education, supplemented by actual contact with the realities of life. The

nation needs men of lofty thoughts, whose ideals are, when brought into guidance, the type of national sanity and progress, and these men are best secured through right education.

Both for actual accomplishing power and for wise leadership, the nation must depend upon her schools. Let them, then, in this war crisis, be maintained and attended in the largest way consistent with national service and national honor.

MARTIN GROVE BRUMBAUGH, Governor of Pennsylvania.  
Harrisburg, August 25, 1917.

### A NEW MODERN HISTORY SYLLABUS.

"An Outline of Recent European History, 1815-1916" has been prepared by Professor Clarence Perkins, of Ohio State University, and published by the College Book Store at Columbus (price, 50 cents). The outline is given in considerable detail, as is shown by the analysis of the topic, "The German Empire Since 1870." Detailed references are given for a number of sub-topics; thus, under "Germany Since 1870," there are reading references on the following topics: "The Governments of Germany;" "German Ideas of the State;" "The Beginnings of Socialism in Germany;" "Bismarck's Hostile Measures toward Socialism;" "The German Social Insurance Laws;" "The German Protective Tariff;" "The German Colonial Expansion;" "Anecdotes of Bismarck;" "Personality and Ability of Emperor William II.," and others.

#### THE GERMAN EMPIRE SINCE 1870.

1. The governments of Germany.
  - A. The imperial government.
    - a. The Emperor and his ministers.
    - b. The Bundesrath.
    - c. The Reichstag.
    - d. Illiberal features of the system.
  - B. The government of the separate States.
    - a. Prussia.
      1. The King and his ministers.
      2. The Herrenhaus.
      3. The Abgeordnetenhaus.
      4. Local government.
      5. Illiberal features.
    - b. Bavaria.
    - c. Saxony, Wurtemberg, Baden, and the lesser States.
  - C. Prospects of political reform.
    - a. Electoral reform in Prussia.
    - b. Redistribution of seats in the Reichstag and the Prussian Landtag.
    - c. Demand for ministerial responsibility.
2. Rise of the great national parties, and the main political issues, 1871-1890.
  - A. The period, 1871-1878.
    - a. The main parties, their principles, and their approximate strength.
    - b. The main issue—the Kulturkampf.
      1. Causes and character.
      2. The purposes and character of the anti-clerical legislation.
      3. Effects of this legislation. Why Bismarck decided to give up this policy.
    - c. Liberal legislation of the period.
  - B. The period, 1878-1890.
    - a. The main parties, their principles, and their approximate strength.
    - b. Bismarck and the policy of protective tariffs.
      1. Reasons which led him to favor this policy.
      2. Extent to which it has been adopted.
3. Effects.
  - c. Bismarck and socialism.
    1. Early history of German socialism. Ferdinand Lassalle and his work. Karl Marx, his theories, and his work.
    2. Bismarck's motives in attacking socialism.
    3. His anti-socialist legislation and its effects.
    4. Social reform legislation passed under Bismarck.
      - a. Reasons for Bismarck's support of this legislation.
      - b. The Sickness Insurance Law.
      - c. The Accident Insurance Law.
      - d. The Old Age Pension Law.
      - e. Effects of this legislation.
    - d. Disputes over the army—the "Military Septennate."
- e. The beginning of colonial expansion.
  1. Why Germany had no colonies.
  2. Bismarck's early policy.
  3. Germany's need for colonies.
  4. Character and extent of her colonial empire in 1914. Its value and effects on German development.
3. German development and problems since 1890.
  - A. Character and policies of Kaiser Wilhelm II.
  - B. Growth of German industry and commerce.
    - a. The industrial and agricultural sections of Germany. Character and numbers of the population in the various sections.
    - b. The growth of the great German industries. Location, character, and importance.
    - c. German foreign trade and mercantile marine.
    - d. Causes of the rapid growth of German trade and commerce. Why the German so often is able to get the best of his competitors.
    - e. Organization of industrial corporations in Germany—the Syndicates.
  - C. State socialism in Germany.
    - a. Social reform projects undertaken by the government and in prospect.
    - b. What the German cities do for the people—municipal socialism.
    - c. State enterprises.
      1. Transportation.
      2. Industry.
      3. Agriculture and forestry.
  - D. The Social Democratic Party and its work.
    - a. Voting strength and representation in the Reichstag in the past two decades.
    - b. Reasons for its growth.
    - c. Demands of the party. Extent to which its leaders are breaking away from the Marxian dogmas.
    - d. Socialism and the labor unions.
      1. History of trade unionism in Germany.
      2. Character and strength of the unions. Their methods and influence.
      3. Connection of the unions with the Social Democratic Party.
  - E. German military and naval strength.
    - a. Growth of the army. Its state of efficiency. The great increase of 1913.
    - b. Rapid growth of the navy since 1900.
      1. Causes. Was it necessary?
      2. Present and probable future strength.
      3. Effects.
    - c. The cost of empire. The revenues of the empire and of the separate States. Character and weight of taxation. Rapid growth of the imperial debt. Prospects.
  - F. German foreign policy in recent years (to be considered in detail in a later topic).

## BOOK REVIEWS

EDITED BY PROFESSOR WAYLAND J. CHASE,  
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

HALL, CLIFTON R. *Andrew Johnson, Military Governor of Tennessee*. Princeton, N. J.: Princeton University Press, 1916. Pp. iv, 233. \$1.50.

Professor Hall has made a study of the career of Andrew Johnson from the time of his appointment in 1862 to be military governor of Tennessee until he left the State in February, 1865, to become Vice-President of the United States. As the preface states, Professor Hall has based his account largely upon the Johnson Papers in the Library of Congress, upon the Official Records of the Union and Confederate Armies, and upon contemporary newspapers—notably the "Nashville Union." The files of the anti-administration papers of Memphis are so broken as to be of little value, and there is, as Professor Hall points out, a great dearth of other material to show the Confederate point of view. Yet the study is straightforward, ably presented, and gives an excellent picture of conditions in Tennessee as well as of Johnson himself during the extraordinary period when the Federal Government in the person of the military governor was conducting the affairs of a recalcitrant State. There is nothing striking or especially new in the study; but it will be valuable to anyone who wishes to know thoroughly one aspect of the Civil War, and to understand Andrew Johnson and his policy as President of the United States. For as Professor Hall makes clear, what he was as United States Senator, he was as military governor; what he was as military governor, he was as President. "Conscious of his superior ability, and impeded at every turn, in his efforts to secure the preferments he felt his worth demanded, by lack of wealth and social standing, the monopolies of the plantation-owning, slaveholding aristocrats in his State, he early developed an intense bitterness against the artificial distinctions of society. Far from diminishing, this feeling grew upon him with years, poisoned his whole life, and impaired his character. . . . His every speech and every action as a public man reiterated the slogan of Andrew Jackson, the idol of his boyhood and the inspiration of his whole career: 'Our Union! it must be preserved!' Of its overthrow he could not conceive. . . . The studied contempt with which the pro-Southern citizens of Nashville treated him stung his pride, caused him to draw further back within himself, and made him still more resentful. Deputed to extend the protecting ægis of law and orderly government over the State, his utter lack of finesse made him appear to be brandishing a club to frighten the people into subjection, and their animosity centred upon him." Johnson's passionate outburst to John M. Palmer, who was endeavoring to make clear the attitude of Northern anti-slavery men toward slavery—"Damn the negroes; I am fighting these traitorous aristocrats, their masters!"—is likewise significant.

The first chapter gives a clear picture of Tennessee, with its eastern counties settled by small farmers unconditionally loyal to the Union, its middle third wavering between the two contending sections, and the western district unequivocally on the side of the Confederacy. The progress toward secession is traced, and the chapter closes with the appointment of Johnson to be military governor, with the rank of brigadier-general of volunteers. The second chapter is a succinct account of Johnson's life till he became military governor, and is especially good. The next five chapters are concerned with Johnson's administration, and bring out the conflicts of authority between him and Buell, the extraordinary difficulty of developing any considerable

Union sentiment in Tennessee, and so restoring the State to its place in the Union, and the reconstruction in 1863-4. In the eighth chapter the Presidential campaign of 1864 in Tennessee is presented, and the ninth chapter covers the process of reorganization until April, 1865, when Brownlow came in as governor, the legislature met at Nashville and the thirteenth amendment was ratified. The tenth chapter, which the author entitles, "A Governor-of-All-Work," shows the amazing variety of tasks Johnson was called upon to do or to direct, and is one of the best in the book. The conclusion is the poorest part of the whole study. It is unfortunate in arrangement of material as well as in its many awkward expressions, and has the effect of an anti-climax. The book as a whole is too good to be marred by its closing chapter. There is a full index.

LOIS KIMBALL MATHEWS.

The University of Wisconsin.

FITE, EMERSON DAVID. *History of the United States*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1916. Pp. vi, 575. \$1.60.

The first impression which this book makes upon the reader is that it is unusually good. A critical examination convinces him that the first impression was correct, and that another first-class text-book has been made available for use in secondary schools.

Of 530 pages of text, some 165 pages are given to the period before 1783, 227 pages to the period 1783 to 1865, and 138 pages to the period since 1865. In the colonial period, the author aims to stress the development of geographical knowledge and "the dependence of events in the colonies upon contemporary English history, and the close connection between the West Indies and the mainland as parts of the same colonial empire." In the national period, social and industrial development are treated along with the political history. As is indicated above by the pages given to the different periods, considerable attention is given to the period since 1865. The story is brought down to 1916, including a discussion of the European war and its bearings upon American history to the time when the book went to press. In these days when history is being made so rapidly, any published account is "behind the times" before it can be brought from the press and put into classroom use. A new book, or the revision of an older one, which does bring the story to date, is always welcomed by teachers.

In addition to being recent, this book is also scholarly, readable and teachable. It has 44 maps, of which nine are in color, and 110 illustrations. The illustrations are well selected and properly set in the text, and some of them are unusually good. A series of four pictures (pages 104-105) shows the "Growth of a Pioneer Home" from the first cabin in the wilderness to a well-developed farm, with good buildings, fences, silo, windmill, and good roads and bridges. Another (page 233) is a diagram showing the working of Whitney's Cotton Gin. Still another (page 284) shows the original McCormick reaper. One wishes that the author had given a series of pictures to show the development of the reaper and the development of transportation, as he did the growth of the pioneer home.

At the end of each chapter the author has given a list of "General References," "Special Topics" (with references), and "Illustrative Material." Many of the books referred to are usually not available for most high school classes, and some may be beyond their comprehension. With the growth of public libraries in even smaller cities, however, and the usual willingness on the part of librarians to receive suggestions for the purchase of books, such lists are useful in building up a good historical library in the

community, to which, of course, high school pupils and teachers will have access. To make the book more teachable, the author has also given at the end of each chapter an unusually good list of "Suggestive Questions."

The appendix contains the Declaration of Independence, the Articles of Confederation, and the Constitution. Most text-books give the first and last mentioned documents, but, unfortunately, they do not all include the Articles of Confederation. In high schools where library facilities are limited, it is a point of importance, in selecting a text-book, to note what documents are given in the appendix. The Ordinance of 1787 might well be included in the list.

WILSON P. SHORTRIDGE.

University of Minnesota.

JEFFRIES, JOUETT. *War Diary of an American Woman to the Proclamation of the Holy War, 1914*. New York: The Fatherland Corporation, 1915. Pp. 160.

The author of this book has been so carried away by admiration for German efficiency that she accepts unhesitatingly every statement made by the German government and even by irresponsible individual Germans. The book is, therefore, full of the most ridiculously inaccurate and prejudiced statements which could hardly have been made by an educated person who had read the official documents telling of the events preceding the outbreak of the war published by many of the belligerent governments. The writer gives an interesting picture of what she saw in Germany during the first months of the war, but its value is much lowered by her credulity of everything emanating from German sources and bitterness against anything coming from English or French sources. The character of the book suggests that its publication may have been financed so as to permit many copies to be distributed gratis in order to influence American opinion. No librarian should waste money by buying it.

CLARENCE PERKINS.

Ohio State University.

FORMAN, S. E. *First Lessons in American History*. New York: The Century Co., 1916. Pp. 243. 65 cents.

This book is written for beginners. Much of the subject-matter is centered about leading men in America. Three picture maps of the United States in black and white make clear the shifting frontier line from 1750 to 1860. The questions preceding each chapter are carefully worded and stimulating. The review questions at the close of the chapters are inclusive and searching. The book covers the entire field of American history. Consequently the treatment of each period is meager, but the style is lucid and sufficiently concrete for children in the fifth and sixth grades. The pictures are well chosen, but their reproduction leaves much to be desired. There are no references of any kind in the book.

SARAH A. DYNES.

State Normal School, Trenton, N. J.

HAMILTON, WALTON HALE (editor). *Current Economic Problems*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1915. Pp. xxxix, 789. \$3.75.

This book of readings has been used by the editor, and may be used by others to meet two needs. "The first is that of a course in current problems which complements a separate course in 'principles.' The second is a course in general economics covering both fields." The book might easily be compared and contrasted with the "Materials for the Study of Elementary Economics," edited by Professors

Marshall, Wright and Field, and published also by the University of Chicago. Professor Hamilton includes 382 readings, averaging two pages each; the "Materials" has only 267 articles in a book of 927 pages. Moreover, in the "Materials" there are 61 articles of five pages or more, whereas the "Current Problems" has only two articles covering five full pages. Professor Hamilton has treated this material under fourteen heads; two of these are historical, two deal with general conditions, seven with particular economic problems, and three with social reforms. In the "Materials" four of the twenty subdivisions are theoretical, four deal with general conditions, eleven are on economic problems, and one on social reform. These lists of topics indicate a better balance in "Current Economic Problems." There is, however, more theory and less material really usable for reference in that volume than in "Materials."

Hamilton's "Readings" have been selected and condensed with great care. Because they are rather "solid," they will probably be more useful for reference than for study, for advanced students rather than college freshmen. In spite of the large amount of general or theoretical material, even the more general divisions include such descriptive accounts as those on the "Economy of the Manor and Guild," on "Medieval Tricks of Trade," and on "English Industry on the Eve of the Revolution," which are practical and interesting rather than theoretical or explanatory. Three divisions, those on the "Problems of Railway Regulation," the "Problems of Economic Insecurity," and the part of "The Problems of Population" on immigration, are of particular practical value. The nature of the articles on immigration may be suggested by citing the names of a few authors whose writings are quoted: Ross, Warne, Ogg, Roberts, Hourwich, Lauck, Hall, Claghorn and Weyl.

For use with the "Current Economic Problems," Professor Hamilton has prepared a booklet on "Exercises in Current Economics." For each group of readings this booklet gives an introduction, questions based on the readings themselves, and questions dealing with problems connected with the readings. As would be expected from the general nature of the main book, considerably more than half of the material in the "Exercises" is given to problems, and comparatively little is devoted to questions on the readings. Moreover, these questions are quite general in nature.

R. L. ASHLEY.

Pasadena High School.

ASHLEY, ROSCOE LEWIS. *The New Civics: A Textbook for Secondary Schools*. The Macmillan Co., 1917. Pp. xix, 420. \$1.20.

The present-day elaborate demands for the more comprehensive study of civics in the high school make the problem of text writing for this work increasingly difficult because of the many diverse subjects which require adequate treatment. A feeling pervades educational circles that the study of civics must have even greater responsibilities placed upon it in the preparation of the citizen for his place in society. In response to the demands for a text which would cover this enlarged field there is placed upon the market the subject of this review.

The "New Civics," as stated by the author, "deals with American citizens in their collective relations to one another." It places emphasis "first upon the citizen and citizenship; secondly, upon the 'public' as an organized group of citizens, and thirdly, on the activities of the governments which the citizens have created and through which the public cares for many of its collective interests." The author designs the book to be used in three possible ways, "for supplementary work in connection with American his-

tory, or for a short course in American government, or for a thorough course in civics."

Part I, "The Citizen and Society," consists of a more or less abstract discussion of political, social, and economic theory. The effort to present in ninety pages the material for a study of our entire social organism results in a rather fragmentary and inadequate treatment. One is impressed with the fact that there are too many classifications for a clear understanding of the subjects by the pupil. This part, however, is intended as introductory to the main topic. The chapter headings are "Citizenship," the "American Nation" (a study of geography and people), "Social Organization," "Political Organization," "Economic Organization," the "Home and Family." Part II treats of the formal study of government, the "Government and the Citizen," showing the relation of the citizen to the State and his influence upon it. The machinery of government is here discussed and its application made in local, State, and national branches. Part III, "Some Public Activities," shows the functions of these governments. The topics, "Public Health and Welfare," "Labor and Industry," "Commerce," "Other Business Activities," "Conservation," cover briefly the social and economic problems.

A departure from the usual method of treatment in the traditional civics text is seen in the absence of most of the historical material so much of which has been found in most of them. There is also missing much technical material. For example, in the section which discusses the court procedure no mention is made of such terms as summons, subpoena, warrant, bail, injunction, extradition. This book is well adapted to form the basis for an excellent course in civics. The author has presented the subject in an attractive manner and in a very pleasing style. Each topic is treated from the point of view of the individual citizen rather than from the standpoint of the governmental organization, a feature of the book which greatly appeals. There is about the work an attitude toward public questions, at once wholesome and invigorating, an idealism which cannot fail to stimulate a high moral response in the student.

W. H. HATHAWAY.

Riverside High School, Milwaukee.

BOGART, ERNEST LUDLOW, AND THOMPSON, CHARLES MANFRED (editors). *Readings in the Economic History of the United States*. Longmans, Green & Co., 1916. Pp. xxvii, 862. \$2.80.

This book of readings is designed for college students in connection with a course in the economic history of the United States. The editors suggest that in addition it may be used in connection with general courses in American history, presumably in senior classes of high schools. It gives a large number of short readings on agriculture, industry, trade, and labor in different periods. It has chapters also on topics particularly identified with the history of different epochs, as "English Colonial Theories and Policy," "The Westward Movement," "Slavery in the South," and "Economic Progress, 1860-1915."

One-fifth of the volume is devoted to the period before 1783, one-half of it to that from 1783 to the Civil War, and the balance to the last half century. This permits a fuller treatment of the early national period than is possible in the more recent period. The selections have been gleaned from many sources, and many of them are otherwise inaccessible to the average high school or college teacher. As far as possible they are taken from contemporary accounts. Almost all readings on the recent period are from government reports and are crowded with tables

of figures. From these statements it can be seen that the treatment of the colonial and early national periods is somewhat more satisfactory than that of the last half century. The value of the book for consultation lies to a great extent in the wealth of statistical material that has been brought together; its chief defect is that the readings emphasize statistics rather than the economic character of the topics treated.

The book should be exceedingly valuable for reference or for detailed study in the hands of college or advanced high school students. It should supplement admirably such a book as Bogart's "Economic History of the United States," which is not overburdened with detail, for the readings tend to err in the other direction. There is an index, and an exercise book has been published for use with the volume.

R. L. ASHLEY.

Pasadena High School, Pasadena, Cal.

DYNES, SARAH A. *Socializing the Child. A Guide to the Teaching of History in the Primary Grades*. New York: Silver, Burdett & Co., 1916. Pp. x, 302. \$1.00.

The central idea of this excellent little book is found in two sentences of the introduction. "It is impossible for the child to picture society of other countries and other times until he has first learned to observe the simple, conspicuous elements in society about him, impossible for him to grasp the significance of events of the past until he has some conception of organized society as it exists to-day. Consequently, the first step towards laying a foundation for the future study of history and of other social subjects is to deepen the child's appreciation of the human relations with which he is already familiar, in other words, to socialize him."

Miss Dynes has worked out most thoroughly the actual operations of class work based upon the principles that are involved in the term "socializing." It is hoped that no teacher in the first three grades will miss catching the spirit of this book. Nor should any teacher of the upper grades or high school imagine that the socializing process is completed in those grades. The bane of history teaching, the thing that often makes it hated and profitless, is the failure of teachers in grades higher than those of the primary department to be guided by such principles as those here laid down concerning what it is possible for pupils to grasp and how they are enabled to grasp and appreciate the subject matter of their lessons.

Part I consists of a well-written summary of the accepted psychological and pedagogical principles underlying the teaching of children. Some of the topics are: The value of play, the child's experience as a basis for history study, the communicative and dramatic instincts, the function of imagination. There is also included a tabulation of the interests of children.

Part II has chapters upon the sand table and its uses, the use of pictures, and construction work. Then follow a chapter each on first, second, and third grade work, hero stories, and celebrations. In these chapters the theory upon which the work proceeds occupies only a minor place. The subject matter is worked out in considerable detail. There are type lessons upon a visit to the farm, the origin of the use of fire by primitive man, life in Holland, Germany, Japan, and France; the stories of Joseph, Ulysses, Alexander the Great and Columbus. Each chapter has a bibliography and there is an extensive list of references at the close of the volume. The illustrations are numerous and excellent.

ALBERT H. SANFORD.

State Normal School, La Crosse, Wis.

BREASTED, J. H., HUTH, C. F., JR., and HARDING, S. H.  
Ancient—Medieval—Modern History Maps. Chicago:  
Denoyer-Geppert Company.

This series of historical charts marks as noteworthy an advance in the making of historical wall maps in America as the production of Professor Shepherd's "Historical Atlas" did in its field. Indeed, the editors and publishers of the Breasted-Huth-Harding maps deserve greater credit, since in their case all the work of manufacture as well as editing, was done in the United States. The maps combine in an especial degree the results of American scholarship with a practical knowledge of map making. This co-operation has succeeded in producing a series of historical maps which in its field is unequalled among American publications. The maps are marked by a simple, and usually harmonious color scheme; unnecessary details are eliminated; and the larger features are made to stand out—often by ingenious devices—so that they are visible across an ordinary class-room.

The series includes sixteen plates on ancient history, and twenty-three on European and English history. Perhaps a little more originality is shown in the ancient maps, particularly the earlier ones, than is found in the European series; but the latter also contain a number of novel features. This is partly due to the recent great increase in our knowledge of Egypt, Assyria, Babylonia, and particularly of the Cretan and Aegean civilizations. Drs. Breasted and Huth have shown graphically the results of recent archaeological research in these regions. They will receive the thanks of history teachers for the clear manner in which they have noted not only ancient political conditions, but also lines of trade on land and sea, and the areas of production of food products, minerals, and other articles of ancient commerce. One map, for instance, gives the number of sailing days required from the Nile delta to the principal ports of the eastern Mediterranean. It is much to be regretted that a similar map was not constructed for the entire Mediterranean in Roman days.

Among the European history maps especial mention should be made of the map of France showing the feudal provinces, of the maps showing ecclesiastical lands in Germany, and monasteries and bishoprics in England and France, and the route of the Armada, giving dates at various points on the voyage. An excellent bit of work is found in the map on medieval trade and centers of production. On English history the noteworthy special maps are those showing the distribution of iron and coal, and the effect of the reform bill of 1832 upon borough and county representation. The principal political changes are well shown; the partition of Poland, the unification of Germany and Italy, the advance and decline of Turkey, and the rise of the Balkan States.

With so much that is good it may seem ungrateful to ask for more; but one cannot but wish that the editors and publishers will soon add to the series physical maps of Europe and its principal countries; a chart showing the development of Brandenburg-Prussia; one on the expansion of Russia; and a map or maps showing the population basis of Pan-Germanism and Pan-Slavism. Most of this material, it should be said, can be gathered by comparing several of the maps now in the series; good pedagogy might be promoted by showing these details on single maps.

The series will be of value not only in secondary schools, but will be a useful addition to the historical equipment of colleges, especially for use in section work with large classes.

## Periodical Literature

EDITED BY GERTRUDE BRAMLETTE RICHARDS, PH.D.

The "Outlook" for August 8 publishes an article by Gregory Mason, the Outlook's staff correspondent in Russia, on "To Fight or Not to Fight, Russia's Dilemma." In Russia, according to Mr. Mason, the question is not so much a question of "To fight or not to fight," as it is of the form the battle shall take, whether it shall be a war against capitalism or war against Germany. One party wants war at home and peace abroad. The other faction wants peace at home and war abroad. In the same issue is John H. Finley's "Anywhere in France," a report of the spirit in which the schools and the teachers of France have borne themselves in the exigencies of the war.

Henry Snyder writes on "Kerensky of Russia" in the August "Review of Reviews." Mr. Snyder has just returned from Russia, and consequently his word has additional value. According to the author, the war minister's strength lies in his democracy and in the fact that he is a native Russian. He bases his entire hope of ultimate success on the single policy of compromise.

The secretary of the Council of National Defense, Grosvenor Clark, gives an account of "What the Council of National Defense Is, and What It Has Done" in the August "Scribner's."

"Can the Irish Settle the Irish Question?" by Frank Dillnot, in the August "World's Work," argues quite convincingly that only by the Irish can it be settled. At present it is too difficult for either Irishmen or Englishmen to see the way out, but the issues are becoming distinct, which is in itself a hopeful sign.

Ambassador J. J. Jusserand presents an abridgment from his volume, "With Americans of Past and Present Days," in the "National Geographic Magazine" for June, under the title, "Our First Alliance."

Raoul Blanchard, exchange professor at Harvard University for 1916-17, has a notable article on "Tactics and Armament: an Evolution," in the August "Atlantic." The article undertakes "to explain the great transformations which have taken place in the operations on the Western front, passing from a state of most rapid flux to the absolute immobility of trench warfare, and now tending to abandon this stagnation in favor of fighting in the open."

Hendrick Willem van Loon's article on "The Neutrals and the Allied Cause" ("Century" for August) places "the key to immediate victory in the great European War in the hands of the small neutral states of the continent."

"The Serbian Tragedy As I Saw It," by Herbert Carey in the August "Harper's," is an account by an eye-witness of the last campaign of the Serbian army, as inspiring in its bravery as it was tragic in its extreme poverty of men and army.

"The Sewanee Review" for July publishes Thomas J. Wertenbaker's "An Attempt to Reform the Church of Colonial Virginia," which throws new light on social conditions in seventeenth century Virginia and the work of the saintly Blair, and "Some Medieval Charms," by Editor John M. McBryde, Jr., an interesting account of magic rhymes.

"The Cabinet in the Eighteenth Century," by Edward Raymond Turner, in "The English Historical Review" for April, is a criticism of the idea that during the eighteenth century in England there was really a system of two cabinets, a large outer one more formal than efficient, with an

inner cabinet or conciliabulum which possessed the real power and did the work of governing the kingdom. While this may have existed during the second half of the eighteenth century, yet Mr. Turner has proven that during the earlier period the idea has little proper foundation.

St. Nihal Singh's article on "India's Changing Status in the Empire," in "The London Quarterly Review" for July, is a recognition, long withheld, of the real benefits the English government has bestowed on that part of the British Empire—benefits social, military and political.

The article on "An Irish Settlement," in the July "Nineteenth Century," "Is It Wise to Establish Home Rule Before the End of the War," by Professor A. V. Dicey; and "A Southern Unionist's View," by Sir Henry Blake, are both in favor of a postponement of any settlement of this question until after the war is over. The former article is an excellent account of the fundamental differences which make an immediate settlement unwise.

Professor Thomas Walker Page, of the University of Virginia, writes on "Lynching and Race Relations" in the August "North American Review." His article is by far the best analysis of race relations in the Southern States which has yet appeared.

"The State of Feeling in Old Greece," by M. Ronald Burrows, in "The Contemporary Review" for July, gives a clear idea of party divisions at the time of the abdication of Constantine.

#### BOOKS ON HISTORY AND POLITICS PUBLISHED IN THE UNITED STATES FROM APRIL 28 TO JULY 28, 1917. NOTES.

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- Boston Athenæum. Confederate literature; a list of books and newspapers, maps, music, and miscellaneous matter printed in the South during the Confederacy, now in the Boston Athenæum. Boston [The Author]. 213 pp. \$1.25, net.
- Boyce, W. Scott. Economic and social history of Chowan County, N. C., 1880-1915. N. Y.: Longmans. 293 pp. \$2.50, special net.
- Carmichael, Mary H., compiler. Pioneer Days. N. Y.: Duffield. 196 pp. \$1.25, net.
- Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. Extracts from American and foreign works on international law concerning the armed neutrality of 1780 and 1800. Wash., D. C.: The Endowment. 109 pp.
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- Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. Opinions of the attorneys general and judgments of the Supreme Court and the Court of Claims of the United States relating to controversy over neutral rights between the United States and France, 1797-1800. Wash., D. C.: The Endowment. 340 pp.
- Channing, Edward. A history of the United States. [In 8 vols.] Vol. 4. Federalists and Republicans, 1789-1815. N. Y.: Macmillan. 575 pp. \$2.75, net.

- Connecticut [Colony]. The Wolcott Papers; correspondence and documents during Roger Wolcott's governorship of the Colony of Connecticut, 1750-1754, with some of earlier date. Hartford, Ct.: State Hist. Soc. 557 pp. \$3.00.
- De Puy, H. F., editor. A bibliography of the English Colonial treaties with the American Indians, inc. a synopsis of each treaty. [Cambridge, Mass.: Lenox Club, care of G. P. Winship.] 110 pp. \$7.50, net.
- Freund, Ernst. Standards of American legislation. Chicago: Univ. of Chicago. 327 pp. \$1.50, net.
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- Hennessey, Michael E. Twenty-five years of Massachusetts politics, from Russell to McCall, 1890-1915. Boston: Practical Politics, 109 State St. 398 pp.
- Hoekstra, P. Thirty-seven years of Holland-American relations, 1803-1840. Grand Rapids: Eerdmans-Sevensma Co. 184 pp. (5½ pp. bibl.). \$1.00, net.
- Jewett, Alice L. Official publications of the State of New York relating to its history as colony and state. Albany, N. Y.: Univ. of State of N. Y. 62 pp.
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- Col. William R. Lee, of the Revolution. Salem, Mass.: Essex Inst. 30 pp. \$1.00.
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EDITED UNDER THE SUPERVISION OF A COMMITTEE OF THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION

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Volume VIII.  
Number 8.

PHILADELPHIA, OCTOBER, 1917.

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## CONTENTS

- American Interest in the West Indies, by Prof. W. Westergaard 249
- Blackboard Work in History Teaching, by W. W. Wuesthoff 253
- Timely Suggestions for Secondary School History:
- I. Old and New in the Near East, by Prof. A. T. Olmstead 256
  - II. Medieval England, by Prof. C. H. McIlwain - 257
  - III. Ethnographical Conditions in Central Europe, by  
Committee on European History - - - 258
  - IV. English Foundations of American Institutional Life,  
by Prof. St. G. L. Sioussat - - - 260
- Renaissance in Military History, by Prof. E. M. Violette - 261
- The Study of Nations, by Harriet E. Tuell - - - 264
- Notes from the Historical Field, 275; Comments on History Teaching in Colleges, 276;  
New Elementary History Course in Philadelphia, 277; Book Reviews, edited by Prof. W.  
J. Chase, 279; Current Periodical Articles on History Teaching, listed by W. L. Hall, 281;  
Recent Historical Publications, listed by Dr. C. A. Coulomb, 281.

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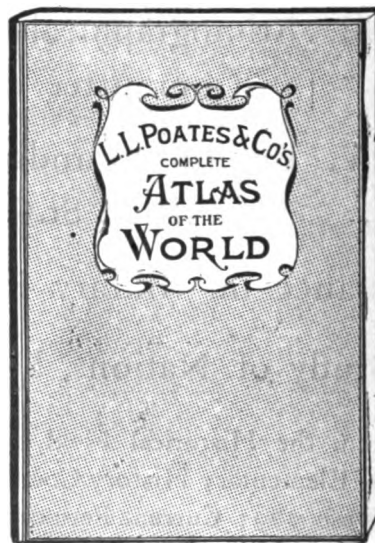
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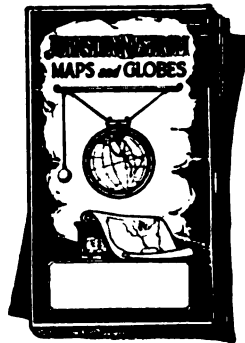
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# The History Teacher's Magazine

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## American Interest in the West Indies

BY WALDEMAR WESTERGAARD, PH.D., POMONA COLLEGE, CLAREMONT, CAL.

The "American Mediterranean" has come to receive an increasing attention from historians during the opening years of the present century. It is significant that this deepening interest is synchronous with the successful completion of the Panama Canal project. Historical scholars, both in England and in America, have come to an increasing realization of the importance of the West Indies in colonial history. Sir Charles Prestwood Lucas, in his "Historical Geography of the British West Indies," Dr. C. H. Haring in his "Buccaneers in the Seventeenth Century," Mr. A. P. Newton in his "Colonizing Activities of the Puritans," and Prof. Stewart L. Mims in his "Colbert's West Indian Policy," are among recent historical writers who represent the newer view. During recent years the attitude of writers towards the history of the English colonies on the mainland has undergone significant changes. The epoch-making studies of Mr. George Louis Beer, and the admirable work of Professors Charles M. Andrews, of Yale; Herbert L. Osgood, of Columbia, and Edward Channing, of Harvard University, have helped measurably in doing away with the air of provincial insularity that had hitherto surrounded colonial historiography.

"Mention the West Indies of the sixteen hundreds," says a recent writer, "and the mind leaps to a free field of fancy; in the languorous noon of a tropic sea, by the curving strand of some nameless isle, one sees, perhaps, a gaunt and dingy flagless ship, waiting whilst its crew, long-haired and bleared and greasy, divide the plunder of a brass-bound treasure chest—a lawless time and place, with bold adventures metely chronicled by the pen of Smollet or Defoe or R. L. S. The gentle reader may remember vaguely that the Caribbean was not filled entirely with galleons and corsairs, that some men actually did build homes and spin out an existence, sometimes profitable enough, in their tobacco fields or sugar mills; but to ask him soberly to think of the Antilles as the residence of honest men in the century when the buccaneers haunted Hispaniola, and Mansfield and Morgan harried up and down the Spanish Main, is quite too much to ask of human nature."<sup>2</sup>

So it seems peculiarly appropriate at this time,

<sup>1</sup> Read at the November, 1916, meeting of the Pacific Coast Branch of the American Historical Association, held at San Diego, Cal.

<sup>2</sup> D. R. Dixon, "Foundations of West India Policy" ("Political Science Quarterly," Vol. 30, p. 661).

when the interest of the United States is drawn towards the Caribbean by the completion of the Panama Canal, and by the purchase of the Danish Islands, to pass in brief review certain cardinal facts in the history of that myth-enshrouded archipelago. For more than a century following the discovery, Spain's political sovereignty in the New World was not seriously questioned. The effectiveness of her commercial monopoly is emphasized rather than weakened by the exploits of such famous interlopers as Sir John Hawkins and Sir Francis Drake. It was not until nearly a quarter of a century after the destruction of the Spanish Armada through the efforts of the English and the Dutch, that Spain found herself obliged to share with her Protestant neighbors to the north the ownership of the New World. During this century and part of the following, the Pacific Ocean was, of course a "closed sea" [*Mare clausum*], while on the Atlantic side of the New World no Teutonic or non-Catholic power had gained a foothold.

By the opening of the seventeenth century the situation underwent a tremendous change. England and the Protestant Netherlands had both acquired confidence in their ability to meet Spain upon an equal footing both in naval and commercial spheres. In spite of Spanish protests they found themselves able to begin settlements, not only in Virginia and New Netherland, but on the islands that guarded the routes by which the Spanish plate fleets left Vera Cruz and Porto Bello for the Old World.

The early history of these colonizing efforts exhibits a remarkable uniformity, especially along economic lines. The West Indies offered no highly developed civilization, no advanced state of culture, as did the East Indian lands, which could yield a surplus beyond its needs for purposes of commerce. The early settlers were forced to depend upon such easily raised crops as tobacco or cotton, upon hides and tallow from the wild cattle that roamed over the mountains, upon the dye-woods in the primeval forests that covered the hillsides. It was not until about 1640 that human existence acquired a sort of stability in the lesser islands of the West Indies, through the introduction, by Dutchmen from Brazil, of the sugar cane. Against the efforts of Frenchmen and Dutchmen, Englishmen and Courlanders, Danes and Brandenburgers, Spain made a determined but eventually unsuccessful attempt to keep those foreign aggressors out of her American preserves. Her "Barlovento

fleet" made periodical visits to islands suspected of harboring unauthorized or buccaneering colonies. Woe to those luckless pioneers upon whom fell the wrath of the Spaniard! And woe to the Spanish-American city that found itself obliged to entertain such unwelcome guests as French or English buccaneers.

Under these circumstances, when the Old World nations were struggling against each other for commercial supremacy in the New World, the aboriginal inhabitants of the islands completely disappeared. The last places upon which the Caribs managed to maintain themselves were Santa Lucia and Dominica in the Windward Islands. The difficulty of enforcing in the New World the treaties that had been negotiated in the Old, was complicated by the presence of the buccaneers and the custom of encouraging them privately by the issuing of "letters of marque" and by the peculiar admission of inability to control the conduct of citizens on this side of the Atlantic by excluding from the terms of the treaties the lands "beyond the line." It was under such uncertain conditions in the New World, and in the midst of a dynastic revolution in England, that Jamaica was seized by an expedition sent by Cromwell in 1655. The French remained, nevertheless, the strongest Caribbean power until the prestige of France began seriously to decline as a result of English victories in the War of the Spanish Succession. The West Indian islands were, indeed, as Professor Egerton has well said, "The natural cock-pit of the European nations in the struggle for hegemony." Some of the islands, like Santa Lucia and St. Kitts, had indeed changed hands a dozen times. And these were but typical instances.

By way of contrast with the small islands, the tenure of the larger islands has been relatively permanent. Cuba and Porto Rico remained in Spanish possession, except for the brief occupation of Havana in the Seven Years' War, until the Spanish-American war of 1898. Jamaica has remained in continuous English possession ever since 1655. Haiti remained under the Spanish and the French until the French Revolution, and since that time has managed to maintain its existence as a "black republic." But the smaller islands of that great "bow of Ulysses," stretching in a magnificent sweep of seven hundred miles from Porto Rico to Trinidad, have had a most bewildering sort of political history. What is the key to this swarming of nationalities upon the eastern boundaries of the American Mediterranean? Why is it that Englishmen and Frenchmen, Dutchmen and Courlanders, Danes, Brandenburgians and Knights of Malta, hastened to settle upon every up-jutting rock, like flies around the bung of a molasses cask? The answer has already been hinted at. Spanish-America had gained a wonderful reputation as a source of wealth, especially of those metals from which money was coined. The prevailing idea that the more silver and gold a nation was able to lay its hands upon, the more prosperous that nation would be, an idea that was held by economists as well as by common people

who were interested in trade, was responsible for directing the attention of Northern Europe to Spanish America. In the minds of the men of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, the consuming problem that suggested itself for solution was, how best to entice that gold and silver away from the Spaniards? The sixteenth century solution was the temporizing one of smuggling by interlopers or private traders. Then came the period of buccaneers, who were practically legalized pirates. By settling on some inaccessible island or swampy coast, like Tortuga or Honduras, they could become a permanent menace to Spanish trade monopoly. In time of war their possessions became a valuable point of vantage from which to carry on hostilities against Spanish commerce. A more respectable method of separating Spanish treasure from its owners was private establishment of regular colonies, whose possession was recognized by treaties with Spain. It was the treaty of Madrid, negotiated in 1670, between England and Spain, that put Anglo-Spanish New World relations upon a fairly permanent footing. It was this treaty that marked the end of buccaneering and transformed the buccaneers into pirates. It was this treaty and the continuance of diplomatic relations which followed it, that eventually enabled various Old World states to prosecute with signal success the growing African slave trade.

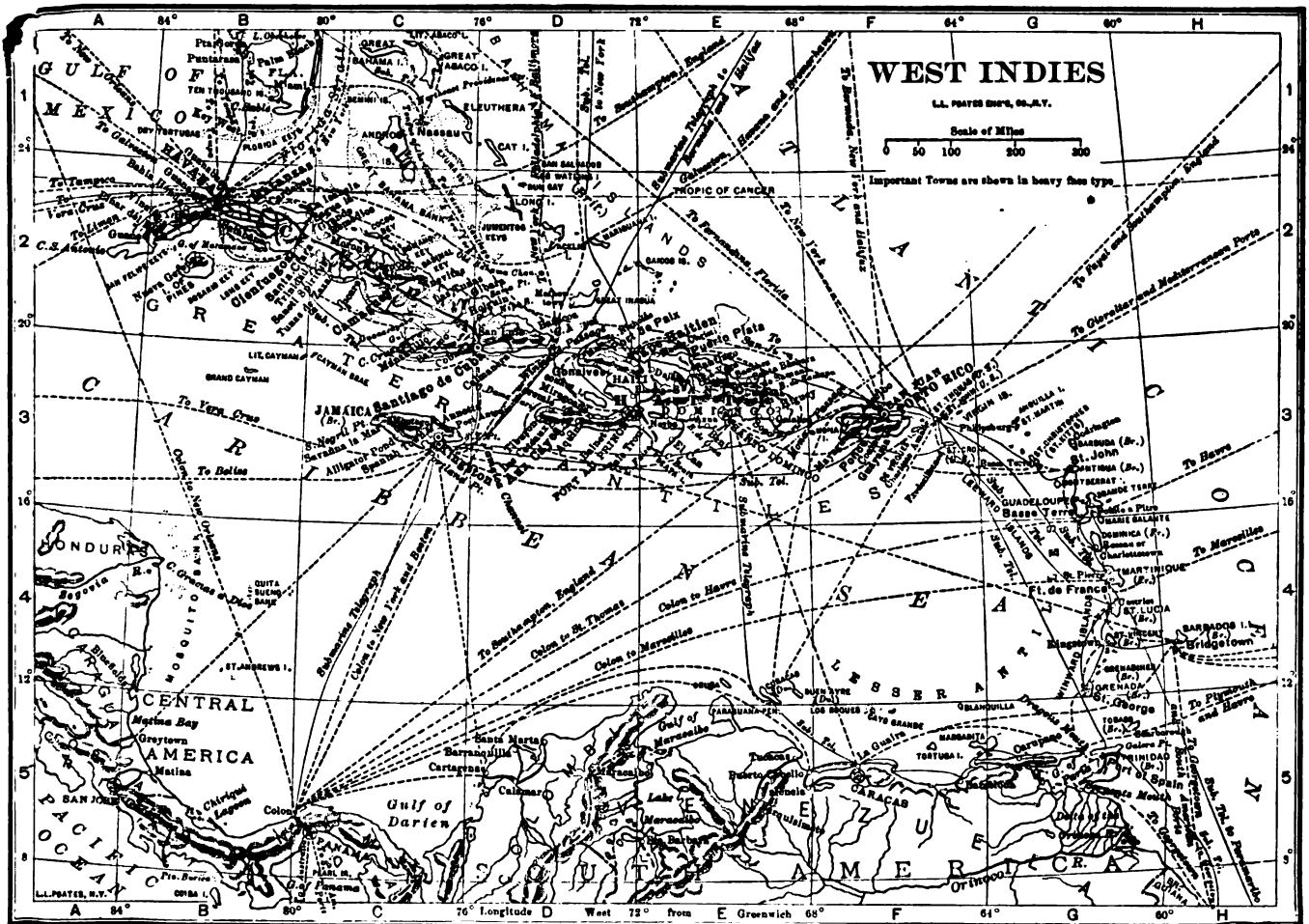
It only requires an examination of the map to realize the value of such colonies as Tortuga, St. Kitts, St. Thomas, Providence, San Andreas and Curaçao. These islands will be seen to guard the routes of commerce between the Spanish mainland of America and the continent of Europe. As an illustration of the advantage of geographical position in this struggle for the commercial spoil of Spain may be cited the experiment known to history as the "Darien Company." It was a wily Scotchman, William Paterson, by name, who conceived the idea, during the brief interval of peace following the war of the Augsburg League, of striking directly at the heart of the matter by establishing a colony upon the Isthmus of Panama itself. The judgment of this gentleman, the distinguished founder of the Bank of England, is surely not to be scoffed at so far as the commercial side of the business was concerned, but the stars in the political firmament that controlled the destiny of the Darien Company were not in conjunction. William the Third of England was not prepared to back up this bold scheme for establishing a company in the heart of the Spanish commercial empire; while the Dutch and English African companies were gravely alarmed at the prospect. So Spain was permitted to retain her annual fair at Porto Bello undisturbed.

These tropic colonies, so strategically placed with respect to commercial and sea power, were ideal in the minds of the seventeenth and eighteenth century Europeans. They furnished an outlet for the surplus population, and were in no sense economic rivals of the home country.

The means employed for the exploitation of those islands and for the development of their possibilities and resources, were commercial joint-stock com-

panies. In the East Indies and the West Indies similar methods were employed. The first West Indian Company was founded by the Dutch in 1621, just when an English company had founded at Plymouth the second permanent English settlement on the Atlantic Coast. French dominion was extended into these regions by a company founded in 1686 under the ægis of Richelieu, an effort that was to be continued later in the century with greater success by Colbert, the famous minister of Louis XIV. It was

the manual labor, to which they were so poorly adapted. It is a long step, economically speaking, between Las Casas, the champion of the Indian, and Clarkson and Wilberforce, the proponents of the freedom of the negro. It is this insistent demand for a solution of the labor problem in the sugar islands that brought about the close connection between the Guinea factories and the West Indies. It resulted in the complete disappearance of the Indians. The profits that accrued from this slave traffic, especially



THE WEST INDIES (FROM L. L. POATES' CONCISE ATLAS OF THE WORLD).

in the age of Colbert, when Charles II courted good relations with Denmark, that the Danish West India Company established itself on that island of St. Thomas which we have recently purchased. The success of these companies as commercial enterprises was due, more than to any other one thing, to the economic revolution that followed the introduction of sugar cane. In the latter half of the seventeenth century, as in the eighteenth century, sugar was indeed king. To make the raising of sugar profitable, the problem of labor was solved by the introduction of negro slaves from Africa, at first as a means of saving the Indians from

to the Dutch and English traders, were frequently enormous. The magnitude of this trade is in itself a measure of its economic importance. It has been estimated that from 1680 to 1786 there was imported into the British Islands a total of 2,130,000 negroes. No one was too exalted or noble to refrain from profiting in this traffic. Shares of Guinea and West Indian Company stock were held by royalty, by ministers of the Gospel, as well as by ministers of State, alike by merchant princes and university professors. The widow invested her mite and the capitalist his surplus. An important result of this trade on its European side was that big business entered into alliance

with government, was indeed often an integral part of government. The result in the West Indies was the rise of a class of capitalist planters, a class so influential that as early as the middle of the seventeenth century it broached the plan of sending representatives to the British Parliament.

It is when we bear in mind that sugar was king that we may understand why England should hesitate between taking from France Guadalupe or Canada in the Treaty of Paris in 1763. It helps us to understand why the English Admiral Nevell struck at the power of Louis XIV during the War of the Augsburg League by searching for the Franco-Spanish fleet in the West Indies. It enables us to comprehend why Pitt's plans embraced the defeat of the schemes of the French prime minister Choiseul in the American as well as in the European Mediterranean. It helps us to realize how Rodney was able to save the situation for Great Britain by his victories over the French fleet in the West Indies during the War of American Independence, and why Lord Nelson should hasten to those waters in search of the French fleet before he finally found and conquered it at Trafalgar.

But the economic structure that had been reared so splendidly upon the single apex of the sugar industry was finally to be overturned. This was due mainly to a Berlin chemist of French extraction, Achard, who in the quiet of his laboratory discovered a practical process of extracting sugar from beets. The development of the sugar beet industry was accompanied by the agitation for slave emancipation. That achievement, which was reached in 1833 in the British West Indies, and in 1848 in the Danish Islands, sounded the death-knell of West Indian planter aristocracy. Steadily, but with a fatal certainty, the West Indian possessions of Europe have deteriorated from colonies to mere dependencies. Today the colonies of France, England and the Netherlands are a source of annual loss to the home government. Lotteries, and other financial devices of questionable character, are resorted to that Madame Deficit's perennial hunger may be appeased.

Now that Spain has been excluded from the Caribbean, possibly with more injury to her pride than to her prosperity; now that France has found use for her colonizing and commercial energies nearer home on the African shores of the Old World Mediterranean, and the work of de Lesseps has been completed by Shonts and Wallace and Goethals; now that England has within the past dozen years withdrawn her last garrisons from Jamaica and Santa Lucia, what is the situation in the American Mediterranean?

It seems perfectly clear that for good or ill, the "Colossus of the North," as we are sometimes called by our neighbors on the other side of the Rio Grande, has its hand on the throttle. A friend of mine in Copenhagen, to whom I had been protesting that we were not an imperialistic nation, that public sentiment was not likely to permit a war of conquest against weaker neighbors (we had been reading of Huerta recently), took a map lying on the table, pointed first at the Rio Grande, next to Panama Canal (then still

unfinished), and remarked, "You are there—and there—you can't help yourselves." There was a disconcerting finality about my friend's remark that left me with an uncomfortable feeling. Did he mean that we were destined to become an imperialistic, state-devouring, New World Rome—or was he firmly convinced that we *were* so already?

Let us review briefly those events and circumstances that have placed us in our present commanding situation north of Panama. The position of the United States at the time when the Monroe Doctrine was first proclaimed affords some instructive contrasts with its position at the present time. The sympathies of this country, for economic as well as for sentimental reasons, were altogether with the revolted American colonies of Spain. This, with fears of Russian aggression southward on the west coast, made the President's point of view a popular one. The support of that strongly nationalistic Westerner, Henry Clay, represented fairly the state of popular opinion. That the "doctrine" then proclaimed might ever be construed into a weapon of aggression certainly never entered the minds of John Quincy Adams or his contemporaries. So far was the thought of American domination from the minds of political leaders in the first half of the nineteenth century that the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, giving Great Britain equal rights with the United States in the construction of an inter-oceanic canal, was not seriously opposed on nationalistic or patriotic grounds.

Napoleon III's intervention in Mexico while we were in the throes of civil war led to our putting new meaning, new force, into the Monroe Doctrine. The difficulties under which the Union navy labored in its efforts to suppress blockade running during that struggle helped to keep up the interest in Cuban affairs, and to encourage the hope of ultimate annexation. It led incidentally to the first definite proposal of a treaty with Denmark for the purchase of the island of St. Thomas—a plan that fell through because of the passive opposition of the chairman of the Foreign Relations Committee in the United States Senate, Charles Sumner.

It was not until the French Canal Company under de Lesseps undertook the construction of a canal at Panama that American sentiment began to crystallize in favor of the abrogation or amendment of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty and the building of an American-owned and American-operated canal. The failure of the French Company allayed American fears of foreign domination of this strategic commercial highway; but it only required a new occasion to bring the latent American opposition to the English treaty more strongly into relief than ever.

President Cleveland's rather sudden and vehement championing of Venezuela's point of view in her dispute with England in 1895-96 revealed an astonishing degree of national sensitiveness with respect to our foreign relations in the Caribbean. But the great turning-point, the event that turned the national attention in a compelling way towards Panama and the West Indies was our war with Spain. With Cuba an



American protectorate, and Porto Rico an American territory, the Clayton-Bulwer treaty was doomed for the waste paper basket. England's graceful yielding to the American position strengthened immensely those cordial relations that have remained unbroken for a century.

During the period since the Canal was begun, the United States has taken charge of the financial and military administration of the negro republics of San Domingo and Haiti—surely not because of our imperialistic designs against weaker states, but through the logic of events. If this country refused to intervene, France or Germany or England would feel obliged to take a hand. However much we might desire to permit our Latin American or African neighbors, situated between us and Panama, to "stew in their own juice," the financial interests of other nations, especially the Great Powers of Europe, seem to be so aggressive that the government of the United States may be expected to take an increasing paternal interest in the region that lies between the Rio Grande and the Canal.

The slaves of this region have long since been freed, and sugar has been dethroned; but the comple-

tion of the great Canal has revived those hopes that spring eternal, and has led West Indians to believe that they are at the dawn of a new and glorious era in their economic history. Improved plantation machinery, the wonderful organization of oceanic fruit lines, diversity in tropical agriculture, the sharing by cacao, coffee, the banana, of the prestige once monopolized by sugar, the proximity of the new trade routes—these are among the hopeful signs in those lands.

The purchase of the Danish Islands in the West Indies at the highest price ever paid by the United States for any of its territory is indicative of the increased importance of the Caribbean lands to the American people. On the one hand, their acquisition affords the historical student an opportunity to see in the perspective of the centuries the relation of this episode to universal history; on the other, it will serve to direct the thought of the practical statesman and the politically inclined citizen to a renewed and more serious consideration of the policy that the United States should adopt in the lands that lie to the north of Panama.

## Blackboard Work in History Teaching

BY WILLIAM W. WUESTHOFF, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, MILWAUKEE, WIS.

The blackboard should play an essential part in the history recitation. By this method the teacher can appeal to a larger number of pupils. The adolescent pupil as a rule learns much and easier by visualization. Such pupils who find it difficult to acquire information by reading or are naturally slow by way of auditory sense, very often gain the greater share of their information by visualization. The attention of these pupils especially must be held. Textbooks which are not illustrated as a rule do not appeal to boys and girls, which is a good indication that they want and need instruction by way of pictures, diagrams and the like. If this is what the pupils want and need, why not give it to them, providing the concession improves the standard of instruction? A textbook can not include all that every teacher might want to use to illustrate a lesson and therefore the teacher must turn to the blackboard. In many cases blackboard illustrations are better than the textbook method. The blackboard illustration is constantly before the pupil. Pupils may slight textbook illustrative material, but such diagrams which are put upon the board will receive the pupils' special attention. You can hold this attention easily and it is the special attention which is the most instructive. The blackboard work emphasizes points and fixes them in the pupil's mind.

The history teacher has considerable material with which to make the teaching have more drive. The following is a list of diagrams for each field of history which can be put upon the blackboard. The list in-

cludes references to books in which diagrams can be found. There are other references, besides foreign publications, but this reference list includes books more accessible to the average teacher:

### GREEK HISTORY.

#### VERTICAL SECTION OF A PYRAMID.

- Gwilt, *Encyclopædia of Architecture*, 33.
- Hamlin, *History of Architecture*, 8.
- Howe, *Essentials in Early European History*, 12.
- Mariette-Bey, *Monuments of Upper Egypt*, 75.
- Proctor, *Great Pyramid*, 120.
- Rawlinson, *Story of Ancient Egypt*, 73, 76, 86.
- Reber, *History of Ancient Art*, 6.
- Seiss, *A Miracle in Stone*, 11.
- Wilson, *Egypt of the Past*, 87, 96.
- West, *Ancient World (Rev.)*, 32.

#### PLAN OF ATHENS.

- Botsford, *Story of Orient and Greece*, 179.
- Butler, *The Story of Athens*, 313, 418.
- Davis, *A Day in Old Athens*, 7.
- Howe, *Essentials in Early European History*, 34.
- Morey, *Ancient Peoples*, 190.
- Morey, *Outlines of Greek History*, 229.
- Robinson and Breasted, *Outlines of European History*, Part I, 173.
- Tucker, *Life in Ancient Athens*, Frontispiece.
- Webster, *Ancient History*, 627.
- West, *Ancient World*, 202.

#### GROUND PLAN OF THE ACROPOLIS

- Butler, *Story of Athens*, 226.
- Davis, *A Day in Old Athens*, 214.

- Gardner, *Ancient Athens*, 86.  
 Guhl and Koner, *Life of the Greeks and the Romans*, 58.  
 Harper, *Dictionary of Classical Literature and Antiquity*, 13.  
 Morey, *Ancient Peoples*, 195.  
 Morey, *Outlines of Greek History*, 232.  
 Seyffert, *Dictionary of Classical Antiquity*, 4.  
 Tucker, *Life in Ancient Athens*, 35.  
 West, *Ancient World*, 209.

#### WALL OF ATHENS.

- Botsford, *Story of Orient and Greece*, 165.  
 Bury, *History of Greece*, 376.  
 Morey, *Ancient Peoples*, 174.  
 Morey, *Outlines of Greek History*, 210.  
 Myers, *Ancient History (Rev.)*, 207.  
 Tucker, *Life in Ancient Athens*, 21.  
 West, *Ancient World*, 189.  
 Westermann, *Story of Ancient Nations*, 139.

#### BATTLE OF MARATHON.

- Arnold, *Story of Greece*, 124.  
 Bury, *History of Greece*, 251.  
 Duruy, *History of Greece*, 415.  
 Morey, *Ancient Peoples*, 155.  
 Morey, *Outlines of Greek History*, 180.  
 Myers, *Ancient History (Rev.)*, 187.  
 Tappan, *Story of the Greek People*, 93.  
 West, *Ancient World*, 170.

#### PLAN OF A GREEK HOUSE.

- Breasted, *Ancient Times*, 456.  
 Cornish, *Dictionary of Greek and Roman Antiquities*, 242.  
 Duruy, *History of Greece*, 625.  
 Guhl and Koner, *Life of the Greeks and Romans*, 80, 82, 83.  
 Harper, *Dictionary of Classical Literature and Antiquity*, 539.  
 Mahaffy, *Old Greek Life*, 15.  
 Seyffert, *Dictionary of Classical Antiquity*, 309.  
 Smith, *Dictionary of Greek and Roman Antiquities*, Vol. I, 659, 661.  
 Tucker, *Life in Ancient Athens*, 93.  
 West, *Ancient World*, 231.

#### GROUND PLAN OF TEMPLE.

- Cornish, *Dictionary of Greek and Roman Antiquities*, 59, 60.  
 Fowler-Wheeler, *Greek Archaeology*, 137, 138, 146, 151.  
 Gardner, *Ancient Athens*, 260.  
 Guhl and Koner, *Life of Greeks and Romans*, 11, 14, 16, 18, 20, 22, 23, 24, 26, 33, 35.  
 Hamlin, *History of Architecture*, 54.  
 Harper, *Dictionary of Classical Literature and Antiquity*, 1533, 1534.  
 Howe, *Essentials in Early European History*, 233.  
 Mathews, *Story of Architecture*, 148, 153.  
 Reber, *History of Ancient Art*, 208, 213, 222, 225, 227.  
 Seyffert, *Dictionary of Classical Antiquity*, 617.  
 Smith, *Dictionary of Greek and Roman Antiquities*, Vol. II, 775, 776.  
 Tucker, *Life in Ancient Athens*, 41.  
 Tuckerman, *Short History of Architecture*, 56.  
 Universal Cyclopædia and Atlas, Vol. I, 290, 293.  
 West, *Ancient World*, 154.

#### ROMAN HISTORY.

##### THE SEVEN HILLS OF ROME.

- Fairley, *Seignobos' History of Roman People*, 16, 28.  
 How and Leigh, *History of Rome to Death of Cæsar*, 38.

- Howe, *Essentials in Early European History*, 85.  
 Morey, *Ancient Peoples*, 310, 312.  
 Morey, *Outlines of Roman History*, 23, 27.  
 Robinson and Breasted, *Outlines of European History*, Part I, 250.  
 West, *Ancient World*, 311.

#### CIRCUS MAXIMUS.

- Cornish, *Dictionary of Greek and Roman Antiquities*, 163.  
 Guhl and Koner, *Life of the Greeks and Romans*, 422.  
 Harper, *Dictionary of Classical Literature and Antiquity*, 352.  
 Johnston, *Private Life of the Romans*, 229.  
 Seyffert, *Dictionary of Classical Antiquity*, 137.  
 Shumway, *A Day in Ancient Rome*, 70.  
 Smith, *Dictionary of Greek and Roman Antiquities*, Vol. I, 432.

#### CROSS SECTION OF ROMAN ROAD.

- Byrne, *Highway Construction*, 81.  
 Cornish, *Dictionary of Greek and Roman Antiquities*, 668.  
 Johnston, *Private Life of the Romans*, 285.  
 Smith, *Dictionary of Greek and Roman Antiquities*, Vol. II, 951.  
 Tillson, *Street Pavements and Paving Materials*, 178.  
 Webster, *Ancient History*, 349.

#### ROMAN MILITARY CAMP.

- Cornish, *Dictionary of Greek and Roman Antiquities*, 145.  
 Fairley, *Seignobos' History of Roman People*, 80.  
 Gilman, *Story of Rome*, 179 (English key).  
 Harper, *Dictionary of Classical Literature and Antiquity*, 291.  
 How and Leigh, *History of Rome to the Death of Cæsar*, 140.  
 Seyffert, *Dictionary of Classical Antiquity*, 117.  
 Smith, *Dictionary of Greek and Roman Antiquity*, Vol. I, 372.  
 Webster, *Ancient History*, 351.  
 West, *Ancient World*, 355.

#### BATTLE OF CANNÆ.

- Breasted, *Ancient Times*, 540.  
 Fairley, *Seignobos' History of Roman People*, 108.  
 Morey, *Ancient Peoples*, 371.  
 Morey, *Outlines of Roman History*, 118.  
 Myers, *Ancient History (Rev.)*, 422.  
 Webster, *Ancient History*, 369.

#### GROUND PLAN OF BASILICA.

- Gwilt, *Encyclopædia of Architecture*, 110.  
 Hamlin, *History of Architecture*, 113.  
 Harper, *Dictionary of Classical Literature and Antiquity*, 198.  
 Howe, *Essentials in Early European History*, 233.  
 Lubke, *Ecclesiastical Art in Germany*, 18.  
 Mathews, *Story of Architecture*, 245.  
 Reber, *History of Ancient Art*, 442.  
 Reber, *History of Medieval Art*, 18.  
 Seyffert, *Dictionary of Classical Antiquity*, 93.  
 Smith, *Dictionary of Greek and Roman Antiquities*, Vol. I, 288-291.  
 Tuckerman, *Short History of Architecture*, 89.  
 Universal Cyclopædia and Atlas, Vol. I, 295.  
 West, *Ancient World*, 511.

#### GROUND PLAN OF ROMAN HOUSE.

- Breasted, *Ancient Times*, 556.  
 Dyer, *Pompeii*, 308, 312, 315, 319.  
 Fairley, *Seignobos' History of Roman People*, 352.

- Guhl and Koner, *Life of the Greeks and Romans*, 360, 362.  
 Johnston, *Private Life of the Romans*, 119, 120, 121, 122, 127, 136.  
 Smith, *Dictionary of Greek and Roman Antiquities*, Vol. I, 681.  
 Wilkins, *Roman Antiquities*, 17, 19.

## MODERN HISTORY.

## FIELD PLAN OF A MANOR.

- Harding, *New Medieval and Modern History*, 171.  
 Howe, *Essentials in Early European History*, 216.  
 Larned, *History of England*, 71.  
 Myers, *Medieval and Modern History (Rev.)*, 84.  
 Shepherd, *Historical Atlas*, 104.  
 West, *Modern History*, 42.  
 West, *Modern World*, 118.

DIAGRAM ILLUSTRATING FEUDAL RELATIONS BETWEEN  
LORD AND VASSAL.

- Davis, *Medieval and Modern Europe*, 68.  
 Harding, *New Medieval and Modern History*, 59.  
 Robinson, *History of Western Europe*, 115.

## GROUND PLAN OF MEDIEVAL CASTLE.

- Howe, *Essentials in Early European History*, 229.  
 LaCroix, *Manners, Customs and Dress During the Middle Ages*, 10.  
 Munro and Whitcomb, *Middle Ages and Modern Europe*, 136.  
 Tappan, *When Knights Were Bold*, 57.

## GROUND PLAN OF A CATHEDRAL.

- Gwilt, *Encyclopædia of Architecture*, 116.  
 Hamlin, *History of Architecture*, 173.  
 Howe, *Essentials in Early European History*, 233.  
 LaCroix, *The Arts in the Middle Ages*, 377.  
 Lubke, *Ecclesiastical Art in Germany*, 48, 85.  
 Scott, *Medieval Architecture*, Vol. II, 110.  
 Tucker, *Short History of Architecture*, 128.  
 Universal Cyclopædia and Atlas, Vol. I, 297.

## UNITED STATES HISTORY.

## BOSTON AND VICINITY, 1775.

- Cambridge, *Modern History Atlas*, Vol. XIV, Map No. 70.  
 Fite, *History of United States*, 130.  
 Hart, *Essentials in American History*, 150.  
 Howard, *Preliminaries of the Revolution*, 310.  
 James and Sanford, *American History*, 155.  
 Labberton, *New Historical Atlas*, 172.  
 McLaughlin, *History of the American Nation*, 156.  
 Muzzey, *American History*, 124.  
 Sheldon, *American History*, 153.  
 Thwaites and Kendall, *History of United States*, 151.

## SIEGE OF YORKTOWN.

- Elson, *History of United States*, 311.  
 Harper, *Encyclopædia of United States History*, Vol. X, "Yorktown."  
 James and Sanford, *American History*, 178.  
 Labberton, *New Historical Atlas*, 172.  
 Montgomery, *American History*, 209.  
 Muzzey, *American History*, 144.  
 Ridpath, *Popular History of United States of America*, 353.  
 Sheldon, *American History*, 187.

## CHARLESTON HARBOR.

- Chadwick, *Causes of the Civil War*, 244.  
 Eggleston, *History of the United States*, 308.  
 Elson, *History of the United States*, 303.  
 Fite, *History of the United States*, 353.  
 Harper, *Encyclopædia of United States History*, Vol. II, "Charleston."  
 James and Sanford, *American History*, 375.  
 McLaughlin, *History of American Nation*, 387.  
 Montgomery, *American History*, 442.  
 Muzzey, *American History*, 422.

## BATTLE OF GETTYSBURG.

- Elson, *History of the United States*, 742.  
 Fiske, *History of the United States*, 414.  
 Harper, *Encyclopædia of United States History*, Vol. IV, "Gettysburg."  
 Hart, *Essentials in American History*, 462.  
 Hosmer, *The Appeal to Arms*, 288.  
 James and Sanford, *American History*, 393.  
 McLaughlin, *History of American Nation*, 409.  
 Montgomery, *American History*, 480.  
 Ridpath, *Popular History of United States of America*, 520.

These drawings can be put upon the board by some pupil. It is better to have pupils do this work as much as possible since it arouses more interest and makes the work seem like their own. This is the proper and real dynamic kind of teaching. Pupils as a rule are very willing to do this work and become more interested in their history as a result. The teacher should consult the references listed before referring the pupils to the books. Some of the references listed have better or simpler plans than others and the teacher after examination can advise the pupils which to choose. It is not necessary that the teacher suggest one book only. A better plan is to give the pupil two or three of the best references available and leave the pupil make the final choice.

The explanation of the drawing should be done by the pupil who made the drawing, or by any pupil in the class and if the latter makes any mistakes let the original person who made the drawing correct and give additional remarks. The pupil giving the original explanation of the drawing should make a previous study of the subject for discussion. Another good plan would be to give several pupils references in addition to the one who is to do the drawing. This group might read upon the subject and be ready for additional remarks at the time of the explanation of the blackboard work. Or if enough books are available the complete list of references might be given to the whole class, and then all pupils be held ready to contribute their share in explaining the blackboard diagram. This is the best plan since it keeps all pupils busy and also makes it easier for them to understand the drawing. The teacher can round out the recitation by material gained by additional reading.

The results of this kind of a recitation will be lasting. Impressions received by the pupils will be vivid, clear, and will make the work more interesting. It will be just one more way of arousing interest, and the more methods the teacher has at hand the better and more effective will be the results accomplished.

# Timely Suggestions for Secondary School History

PREPARED UNDER THE DIRECTION OF FOUR COMMITTEES OF HISTORIANS IN CO-OPERATION WITH  
THE NATIONAL BOARD FOR HISTORICAL SERVICE.

## I. Old and New in the Near East

BY PROFESSOR A. T. OLMSTEAD, UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS.

The history of the ancient Near-East has long since come into its own. The romance of its wondrous resurrection, the lure of its strange pictorial or wedge-shape characters, has attracted the seeker after the unusual. Scholars have appreciated its importance as the foundation of that Græco-Roman civilization which in turn forms the foundation of the modern world. All who read have perused in childhood the pages of the Sacred Book and doubtless have determined when of age to see for themselves the monuments it declares to be "there unto this day." With maturity this familiarity has changed to a strange combination of the well known and the far distant. In memories of the past, "And it came to pass that David" has taken its place with "Once upon a time there lived a handsome young prince," and the whole has merged into a sort of fairy land. With the chosen people, the others mentioned on the sacred page, Assyrians and Babylonians, Egyptians and Hittites and Philistines, have taken unto themselves something of this glamor. Always there have been serious students and intelligent readers to examine the history of the ancient Near-East for the light it casts on the origin of our most cherished religious conceptions.

Far distant as measured by miles, so absorbed in developing our own civilization at home that we have cared little for foreign trade, Americans have rarely appreciated our vast missionary interests in this region and we have never realized that hundreds of thousands of our newest citizens call this their homeland. Now we have suddenly had forced upon us the fact that a battle in Palestine or in Babylonia may in the ultimate analysis have much to do with "making the world safe for democracy." We are beginning to suspect that when the war is ended and our envoys take their place around the inevitable council board, the fate of the Near-East will be decided. Our envoys must be supported by an intelligent public opinion, and yet our citizenship, as a whole, knows nothing of what lies back of the Near-Eastern question. Formerly we in America studied the modern Near-East for the light thrown on the sacred past. Now it is the present that needs the light of the past.

There is no need to develop interest, the interest is there. Regret it as we may, all humanity loves a fight; and when lands hitherto in the realm of the fairy tale suddenly become the scene of very real fighting, carried on by our Allies and for the cause to which we have devoted ourselves, interest need not be manufactured. The boy finds that Sunday School

lessons may have a point; the business man excavates his dust-covered Bible to read for himself the Samson story connected with Gaza and to discover whether it was a King of Babylon who ate grass. The teacher should not consider the work done when the student has been properly edified. His parents may be interested as well, and in the immediate future their influence counts for more.

Material for the vivification of this history may be found everywhere. The newspapers and magazines are filled with photographs of the Near-East and sites of interest to the antiquary are side by side with railway stations and marching armies. Nearly all illustrate some point in geography; likenesses and differences in terrain, in soil, in products, can be impressed, never to be forgotten. The Near-East is a perfect museum of ethnic types, and modern photographs may be used to illustrate manners and customs we had thought confined to the Bible narratives. Germans drilling Turkish troops at the boom town of Beersheba see the wandering Arabs watering their flocks in true Biblical fashion at the same wells used by the patriarchs.

The country has always remained the same, the people have changed but little. The campaigns of Napoleon in Syria have been used to good effect to explain the Biblical narrative. No better account of the change "from the desert to the sown" can be found, for ancient and modern times alike, than the curt announcement of the gradual advance of the British from Egypt into Palestine. The story of the ancient Near-East has in its turn much to contribute to present-day action. Had allied statesmen realized the meaning of the Battle of Issus, for example, the fiasco in Babylonia might have been a brilliant thrust forward from Alexandretta until the whole of Arabic-speaking Turkey had been severed from that part of the empire which recognized the dominance of the ruling race.

The history of the Near-East has always been that of her roads, and much of interest can be given along this line. The world has of late learned that, even with the modern development of sea traffic, the greatest route of the ancient Near-East—that from Egypt through Syria, with its branches to Asia Minor and to Babylonia—is still of high strategic importance; Egyptians and Assyrians, Persians, Greeks and Romans, Arabs and Crusaders, have their successors in the British and Turkish soldiers fighting on the southwest corner of Palestine for the control of the great highway. The Bagdad Railroad in large part parallels the Royal Road of Persian times, and that

in turns rests on earlier Hittite and Assyrian routes. The diagonal shift in the road system of Asia Minor when Constantinople supplanted Rome as the capital, finds its analogy in the struggles between the railroads which attempted to penetrate the interior from Constantinople and from Smyrna; for the present the German line from the former city has won.

Much nonsense has been written about the "unchanging East." Yet when all deduction has been made there remains an indefinable something which

has continued constant through the centuries, giving the Near-East a certain unity in culture, a certain sameness of outlook upon life, as against the remainder of the world. It is this point of view, so different from that of the typical American, this strange but fascinating atmosphere, which is the most important result of the study of the ancient Near-East. Through the sympathetic insight thus secured we are best prepared to meet understandingly the problems that must be faced in the very near future.

## II. Medieval England

BY PROFESSOR C. H. McILWAIN, PRINCETON UNIVERSITY.

The years between the Norman Conquest and the Tudors are the greatest formative period in the history of English, and therefore of our own, political institutions. In the field of religion at this time English institutions show a similarity to those of the Continent rather than the distinctive marks so clearly seen in the centuries following. Our wonderful language, though it is during those years acquiring the varied elements which make it so rich, is only in the next age fashioned into the perfection of the Authorized Version of the Bible. But in the domain which we call political, in the development of law, both public and private, England is absolutely unique, and probably more markedly so during the later Middle Ages than in any subsequent period.

It is true, many of the elements which have united to form our own distinctive political heritage are to be seen elsewhere in Europe at this time, but only in England did these elements remain to be fused into a constitution truly popular. There, and there alone, can we see such an evolution, such a gradual "broadening down from precedent to precedent," that by the end of our period a contemporary could truly compare the *dominium politicum et regale* or limited monarchy of England, with the *dominium regale*, or absolute monarchy across the Channel.

The end of this evolution was a Commonwealth far enough removed as yet, at the end of the Middle Ages, from the ideals of our modern democracy; but one, nevertheless, that contained popular elements unknown elsewhere, the germs of the democracy which we now rightly regard as our heritage. These institutions are—to use a phrase of Mr. Balfour's—a part of our "intellectual climate." They have come to us as naturally as the air we breathe, and often, it is to be feared, as unnoticed, while some other people have had to reach them by the harder way of revolution. But whether the result of inheritance or acquisition, of growth or of strife, as a force now actually moulding the modern world, and, as we believe, destined in the future to mould it far more even than now, these institutions in their development are to be traced, in the main, back to an English origin; and of that development itself, the later Middle Ages are by no means the least important part.

The first impetus to this development in our period came from the strong government of William the Conqueror. And possibly the most significant thing about this government is the fact that, from policy or necessity, or both, William chose to preserve and strengthen, rather than to overturn or weaken, the English law and the existing machinery for its local administration, particularly the shire and hundred courts. This not only connects the institutional history of our period with the age preceding, but it also in fact determined the whole trend of the development of the institutions which we still enjoy to-day. It has been said that the Conqueror strengthened these old institutions which he found in England. This was chiefly due to the stronger central government of the Norman conqueror and to the centralizing and unifying of the local administrative machinery and its procedure resulting therefrom. The old courts of the hundred and the shire, though they never ceased to be such, now became the king's courts as well. The king became "the fountain of justice," and as he did so that justice itself became uniform through a uniform administration.

This was accomplished at first through the practice of issuing writs or orders by the king and his council, which were often identical for all the counties and addressed to all the sheriffs. Later, as this means alone proved inadequate, the sending of periodic commissions, the justices itinerant, throughout the counties, gradually grew into a regular system which, in a specialized form, persists among us yet. Thus a uniform administration was secured, and from it a unification of the law itself. The result was the English common law, the system which still in large measure determines our every-day acts and relations one with another. It is to the Norman and early Angevin centralization of administrative machinery that the fact is mainly due that the law we enjoy to-day is not at bottom that of the Province of Quebec. That strong administration gave us a law that is an outgrowth of English local custom, and it gave the world a new, independent, and indigenous legal system, the only one in fact which ever has successfully contested or apparently ever can contest the supremacy of the law of Rome in the world of Western civilization.

But the courts which enforced this law under Henry I or Henry II were no mere "law courts" in the narrow meaning of our day. They were meetings for the transaction of governmental business of all kinds, and in its transaction the "good men" of the districts had their part, for these men really constituted the "court." Their activity, under the Normans and early Angevins, more and more took the form, under royal guidance, of the sworn inquest. In this way local customs were determined, rates were assessed, judicial verdicts were rendered; any facts, in short, could be brought to the notice of the king's officers as a basis for governmental action.

The growth of our jury from these inquests is a fact well known, but more important even was the political education gained by the "good men" of the hundreds and counties from this participation in government. For as Stubbs says, behind the first participation of the knights of the shire in a national parliament, lies a century and a half of preparation and political education in this participation in the local business of the shire and hundred courts. Thus the development of representative government as it exists in the world of to-day is largely the result of the administrative reforms of the Norman and Angevin periods, working upon older English materials.

As a system of government it undoubtedly owed much to royal initiative, and even to the king's need of increased revenues; but it was also a system which made royal action depend upon the voice of the communities, given by men selected from those communities themselves. Before the end of our period the free election of these men by the community itself and the instruction of these "representatives" by their constituents have become a matter of fact of which the writs of summons to Parliament take official notice.

Thus the communities obtained a voice in government, and when the feudal "estates" from which these representatives were drawn began to give way before the rising idea of a National Commonwealth, the house of communes became the House of Commons, and it could be said as early as the reign of Edward III—centuries before the same was true elsewhere—that everyone was bound by an Act of Parlia-

ment because everyone was presumed to be there either in person or through a representative.

This participation of the representatives of the people, though royal in origin, became in time a check upon arbitrary action on the part of the Crown, from which arose what Professor Dicey has called the rule of law, and also that unique contribution of England to the science and practice of politics, the modern limited monarchy.

It is impossible here to trace in detail the results of these developments, but any student can see their enormous influence upon our subsequent history and upon the growth of our political ideals. To give only one example in lieu of many, we have the doctrine, accepted unwillingly by the king as early as the reign of Edward I, that parliamentary grants are a voluntary contribution of the people. This, like so many other of our free institutions, was sometimes forgotten and often had to be fought for, but what a part it has played in the history of liberty! Even those who emphasize our grievances in the American Revolution would do well to consider that American opposition grew in large part out of English ideals; and to remember, for example, that the cry "No taxation without representation" could hardly have arisen in any but an English country, while Chatham's opposition to the taxation of Americans was based in part on this theory of the medieval English constitution.

Equally important is the long history of freedom of debate or of impeachment of royal officials, but these and many others I must perforce omit, together with the whole of local government and its organs, such as the parish and its machinery, or the justices of the peace, both of which have so greatly influenced our life.

These, then, are but a few of the instances of our indebtedness to medieval England, but a mere passing glance at them will serve to show to anyone acquainted with our own political institutions, that whatever our actual ancestry, we are the heirs and successors of a great political race; and the more careful the study of our institutional history becomes, the greater is likely to be our feeling of gratitude to the framers of the English Constitution.

### III. Ethnographical Conditions in Central Europe

BY THE COMMITTEE ON EUROPEAN HISTORY.

If we look at a racial map of Central Europe to-day the first sensation which it inspires is hopeless confusion. Every color and hue known seems to have been pressed into service, and each one of them represents a nationality feeling itself distinct from the others, having its own distinct history and usages. But is the problem as hopeless as it appears, and is there a possibility of simplification?

The term "Central Europe" covers the present countries of Germany and Austria-Hungary. The Balkan States, or Southeastern Europe, have much the same problems intensified, but space forbids more

than a slight reference to the region below the Save. The various races inhabiting this section can for all practical purposes be separated into two main divisions. On the one hand the various Latin, Teutonic and Slavic nations and the Greeks, in fact, the dominant race in nearly every European country (Hungary and Turkey being the great exceptions); on the other hand the Magyars, Turks, and probably the original Roumans and Bulgars. But this brings us to a fact of great significance, that it is the idea which each nationality holds as to its origin that is of primary importance. The Rouman may be at bottom

ancient Thracian or Bulgar-Avar of Asiatic stock, but he insists upon thinking of himself politically as Latin and European.

It is nearly of equal necessity for us to note that religion separates nationalities of the same race from each other and may divide a nationality against itself. The Poles and Russians are both Slavs, but the Pole is Roman Catholic, while the Russians adopted the Greek faith. The Croat and the Serbian are both Serbs, whatever the mixture of their blood; the Serb is Greek Catholic, the Croat preponderantly Roman.

Now if we consider the races within this Central European territory we find that they fall, in the broadest sense of the term, into three classes. First is the German, forming about nine-tenths of the population of Germany, about a third of that of Austria, and about a tenth of that of Hungary. Next is the Slav, forming a small fraction of the population of Germany, but preponderant in Austria, where they number over two-thirds of the population and a large minority—about two-fifths—of that of Hungary. Lastly there are various non-Aryan nationalities of Asiatic origin and probably related to the Chinese. These are the Hungarians (Magyars), who make up one-half the population—and the ruling half—in Hungary and the Roumanians, who form fifteen per cent. of the Hungarian population. Add to this a sprinkling of Italians, gypsies and the ever-present Jew, and you have a fairly correct analysis of the races of Central Europe.

Generally speaking, racial complications become worse in passing from north to south and from west to east in Central Europe. In the German Empire the great mass of the population is German, with fringes of other nationalities, such as Danes, Poles, and Lithuanians. In both Austria and Hungary this central mass of Germans in the one and Magyars in the other is outnumbered by the ring of Slavs, Italians and Roumanians. In western Hungary, German, Magyar, Slav and Roumanian are tangled together in almost hopeless confusion.

What are the general characteristics of these races, and what part have they played in history? To this question space forbids a detailed answer, and will only allow of some suggestions for further study. Take the Germans first. Their general characteristics to-day are well known, but how different they are from the free, individualistic, liberty-loving Germans of the days of Tacitus! Do we pay enough attention to the introduction into Germany of the Roman law and the Roman methods of government, in which the State was all, the individual nothing and the will of the Emperor had the force of law? Do we trace this influence clearly through the benevolent despotisms of South Germany to its introduction into Brandenburg-Prussia in the late seventeenth and early eighteenth centuries, where it took such strong root? Or in estimating the qualities of the Prussian do we stop to remember that he is the descendant of immigrants who went into the territories of modern Brandenburg and Prussia much as our ancestors went into the Far

West, and that these immigrants were then, as they almost always are, the pick of the people—the hardest, the most self-reliant, the most adventurous. Germans give great space to this colonization movement, but it is hardly mentioned in our text-books. Do we remember that they found there the Slavs, who had filtered in to this territory when it had been left vacant after the migrations; an unwarlike and weaker race whom the Germans subdued, but only after a long warfare that laid the foundations of Prussian militarism? This story of Germany's "Great West" of the Middle Ages had almost as much importance as our western expansion; it was, in a way, Germany's first colony, her first "place in the sun;" and yet how many of us know of it? Or how many know of that other German "colony," planted in Western Hungary, to hold back the Slav and Roumanian in the Middle Ages, and to save German "Kultur" on the upper Danube? Here they still remain, a little island of Teutonism in the surrounding sea of Magyar, Slav and Roumanian civilization.

Or read the brilliant account of the early Slavs in Mr. Barley's "The Slavs of the War Zone." Does it not suggest that the fundamental points of Slav character have not greatly changed in the last thousand years.<sup>1</sup>

In our historical studies these Slavs first appear as a race making up the population of the Russian Empire over which Peter the Great ruled, and on whom he tried to force the alien western civilization. From that time we study Russian history as a sort of appendix to the history of Western Europe. But this treatment gives us little knowledge of the foundations of Russian history, and as to the non-Russian Slav it gives us no knowledge whatsoever. And yet this Slav race has a great future, and understand it we must.<sup>2</sup>

Finally we have various peoples of non-Aryan origin—Hungarians and Roumanians. These races show their nomadic, Asiatic origin in their individualism, their quickness to adapt themselves to outside civilization together with their inability to create for themselves. They have had many able men as leaders whom they have alternately lauded and crucified. Extremely likeable and extremely unreliable—they are in a way the spoilt children of Europe. It was the Magyar who by his race policy in Hungary contributed so greatly to the world war. Less numerous and less powerful than the other two races, these peoples cannot have, in the future, the place they have held in the past.

Such then is the race problem of Central Europe. There are other nationalities, such as the Italian, to add to the difficulty, but in the main it is a struggle between the three races or sets of people mentioned. For each of them has his own "kultur," each

<sup>1</sup> An article on the Slavs will be published in this MAGAZINE.

<sup>2</sup> An article on the Russian Revolution will be published in this MAGAZINE.



his own history and usages, which he wishes to preserve and—unfortunately—also to force upon the others. German persecuted Magyar until 1867; to-day the liberated Magyar lords it over the Slav and Rou-

manian. And the Roumanian, in turn, persecutes the Bulgarian in the Dobrudja, which he conquered from Bulgaria in 1918. The only hope lies in a federation, and a chance for each—but is it possible?

## IV. English Foundations of American Institutional Life

BY PROFESSOR ST. GEORGE L. SIOUSSAT, BROWN UNIVERSITY.

By the time of the American Revolution the population of the English colonies upon the Atlantic was already of mixed stock; but however significant for our later history the infusions of Dutch, Scotch, Roman Catholic and Protestant Irish, Huguenots, and German sectarians—to mention only some of the more important strains—it was the earlier English immigrants who began the settlement of the colonies and laid the enduring foundations of institutional life, and it was into these English ways of doing things and these English habits of thought that the others gradually fell. An enlightening instance of this process may be found in the trial of the German John Peter Zenger, in which the Dutch Rip van Dam had been involved, and in which a Scotch lawyer played a leading role—all in relation to the English law of libel.

The first element in colonial civilization that stamped it as English was, of course, the mother-tongue. Politically this was very important: the two countries needed no interpreter. With this went, too, a cultural union based on a common literary heritage, religious and secular. Both the King James Bible and the works of Shakespeare have been possessions of America as well as of England. The very ballads of our mountaineers, handed down for generations by word of mouth, are living reminders of the age of colonization.

Secondly, when the English settlement took place the period of the Reformation had not yet closed. England, if she had concluded to remain Protestant, had not decided just how Protestant her State Church should be, and there had begun to be those who disliked any State Church at all. The indecision at home was reflected in the colonies, with the difference that the conservative elements would always tend to be weaker, and the radical elements to be stronger. A common opposition to Roman Catholicism, moreover, would be for awhile a national bond between the English in their old and their new homes.

Thirdly, there are to be considered the institutions which we call political. In seventeenth century England these, like the religious, were in unstable equilibrium. At no time were the claims of the monarchy greater than under James I and Charles I: within a few years England made her sole experiment of a republican government. In normal times the monarchy, with the Privy Council, the royal officers, and the courts, bore daily upon the life of every citizen. In the colonies, on the contrary, the king was usually but a name, and there was little to make real the working of the central government, so powerful at

home. The other great factor in the central government, the House of Commons, influenced the colonists in two contrasting ways. On the one hand the "Mother of Parliaments" was the model for the colonial assemblies, which, both in the "corporate" colonies and, more particularly, in the "provinces," repeated in miniature the English struggle between the legislature and the executive. On the other hand the House of Commons, viewed as a part of the home government was, like the king, far removed from the daily life of the Americans. In the early days there was, indeed, a disposition to appeal colonial interests from the king to the Parliament. But as time progressed and the real power in England passed from the crown to the Commons, and laws were passed which the colonists thought bore hardly upon them, the dislike which had attached to royal interference was transferred to Parliament. It is not too much to say that one great cause of the American Revolution was the fact that Parliament, which in England did stand for what there was of political progress, failed of this end as to the colonists.

But it was in the field of local government that the institutional life in England was most completely reproduced in the colonies. The English county and the English parish reappeared, with changes, to be sure, in the settlements in New England and in the South. In the New England township, in the hundreds, manors, parishes, and counties of the South, and in the officers whose duties were connected with these divisions, was laid the real substructure of the political life of the colonies, to be passed on, later, through the land-system of the United States, and through the pioneers, to the younger generations of the West.

A word remains to be said as to the legal and political ideas of the colonists. They were constantly claiming the "rights of Englishmen"—but what were these rights? An English official might gruffly reduce these to the sole one "not to be sold as slaves." On the other hand the elder Dulany, in a pamphlet, "The Right of the Inhabitants of Maryland to the Benefit of the English Laws" laid claim both to the common law, and to the statutes of England. "No one can tell," said another, "what is law and what is not in the plantations." The problem was a complicated one, and was made more so by the fact that the colonial courts, rather than those of England, had the matter in their keeping. The question of appeals to England arose, as it was bound to do. By way of summary it may be said that English law was at the very foundation of the legal ideas of the colonies, but

that the adoption of English law was accomplished by an irregular selective process, and that no complete system applicable everywhere had been worked out when the Revolution took place. As to the whole matter, the relation of Ireland to the English Parliament, and the great question of our own history, "Does the Constitution follow the flag?" offer interesting bases for comparison.

Finally, we must not forget the influence of political philosophy. From the beginning of settlement un-

til the separation from the mother-country, the colonists, like their cousins in England, did much political thinking. They were helped by other than English publicists: Grotius and Puffendorf, and later, Vattel, gave them ideas as well as Hooker and Harrington and Sidney. But it was the Englishman John Locke, who in his "Treatise on Government" not only defended the Revolution of 1688, but laid the weightiest philosophical foundations for the men of 1776.

## A Renaissance in Military History

BY PROFESSOR E. M. VIOLETTE, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, KIRKSVILLE, MO.

During the past twenty-five years there has been a marked change in the content of the courses in history as given in our schools and colleges. One of the results of this change has been the almost complete elimination of the military phase. Whereas in former years the greater part of the course in American history, in the schools at least, consisted of rather detailed accounts of the wars in which our country had become engaged, in recent years these wars have been dealt with in such reduced form as to make them constitute only a very small part of the course. The fascinating accounts of Schenectady, Louisburg, Quebec, Saratoga, Yorktown, New Orleans, Chapultepec, Bull Run and Gettysburg that adorned the pages of our earlier text-books have disappeared altogether, and in their place we have a few brief statements outlining the different campaigns with little or nothing of incident or detail.

Political history, by the way, has been dealt with in the same summary fashion. We no longer proceed through the pages of our history by presidential administrations, noting in chronological order the events that occurred in each, whether they were of great importance or not. Indeed we have come to such a state as to ignore the existence of some of our worthy chief executives and to pass them over without even the mere mention of their names. A recent text-book for the seventh and eighth grades that has found ready favor fails to mention the names of four of our presidents. Such a thing as this would have been an impossibility when presidential administrations were taken as the indispensable mile-posts in American history, and when politics was given equal emphasis along with wars.

What has happened in American history has also happened in ancient, medieval and modern and English history. We no longer study at great length the Græco-Persian, the Peloponnesian, and the Punic wars. Neither do we go into detail concerning the Hundred Years War, the War of the Roses, the campaigns of Frederick the Great and of Napoleon, and the Franco-Prussian War. Marathon, Syracuse, Cannae, Crecy, Bosworth Field, Rossbach, Austerlitz, and Sedan take but little of our time, and have come to be scarcely more than mere names in a diminishing

catalogue of military engagements that are still allowed to find a place in our text-books. Likewise we have discontinued to recount the personal deeds and exploits of kings and princes, and many of the heroes that once stood out very prominently in our earlier histories are now passed over in absolute silence.

If we turn for an explanation for this tendency to eliminate the military and the political phases from our courses in history, we shall find it in the widespread desire to consider in some detail the social and the economic phases of history. We have lost interest in military and political strifes because we have become more concerned in finding out how men lived, what institutions they created and developed, and what ideals and motives controlled their actions. We have been pleased to let the common man crowd the ruler and the warrior off the stage of history in many of its scenes, and to make the conditions in which he lived the chief topic of our study in history.

This interest in the social and the economic phases of history that has arisen in recent times has been due primarily to the increasing interest that we have been taking in our present-day problems. Under the leadership of the sociologist, the economist, and the political scientist we have in the last few years thought more on the welfare of society than ever before. As a people we have been going through a process of socialization. It was therefore perfectly natural that our growing interest in the social and the economic conditions of to-day should react upon our interest in the past and should lead us to attempt to approach the past from the same point of view as that of the present. It is no wonder, therefore, that we shoved the purely military and political phases of history to one side and made room for these newer phases. Not to have done so would have left us out of harmony with ourselves.

In taking into account this shifting of interest from the military and the political to the social and the economic phases of history, we must not ignore the influence of the pacifist and the socialist. Their hatred of war and their repeated declarations and assurances prior to 1914 that there would be no more great wars not only lulled us to sleep and made us feel secure against the probability of the renewal of

war, but they contributed very materially to the growing dislike toward war as a subject for study in our courses in history.

All these familiar facts regarding the study and the teaching of history in our schools and colleges have been reviewed for the purpose of raising the question as to what effects the present war is going to have on our future attitude toward the military phase of history. The greatest war in all history has been going on for over three years. As a nation we have passed from the position of spectator to that of active participant. We are just beginning to awake to the full significance of the war and are eagerly watching its progress and development. When it shall have drawn to a close and the time shall have come to give it a place in our courses in history, will the text-book writer deal with it in the same manner in which he has been accustomed to deal with former wars? Will the history teacher be content to pass over it in the same summary fashion in which he has run over the great struggles of former times? Not by any means. For a generation at least this war will be recounted in our classrooms with a great wealth of detail, much of which will be concerned with the purely military phase. The invasion of Belgium, the battles of the Marne and the Aisne, the bombardment of Rheims, the siege of Verdun, the fall and recapture of Przemyśl, the capture of Warsaw, the inundation of Serbia and of Roumania, the failure of the Gallipoli campaign, the surrender of Kut-el-Amara, and the capture of Bagdad; the sinking of the *Lusitania*, and the awful unrestricted submarine warfare; the Zeppelin attacks and the aeroplane engagements; the horrible atrocities committed by the Germans on Belgians and Poles, and by the Turks on the Armenians—all these things, together with the events that are yet to follow, especially the engagements in which our own troops will take part, will be related and discussed by our pupils and students in the classroom for years to come. The Kaiser, von Hindenburg, Lloyd George, Joffre, Kerensky and Pershing, together with a great many other names, will live a long, long while, some of them as long as history will be recounted. Many of these men, it should be noted, will be known only for their connection with this war in a military capacity.

It is expected that as the years pass by and the present conflict recedes more and more into the background, less attention will be given to it by the historians of the future than by the historians of the present. The student of fifty years hence will, of course, be interested in it, as will also the student of a thousand years from now, but with different degrees of interest from that which we now have in it. Perhaps their interest will be comparable to that which the present generation has in the Civil War of the sixties and the wars of Hannibal and Cæsar. But whatever may be the interest of the future students of history in the present world-wide war, there is no denying the fact that this war is of paramount importance to us now, and that it will bulk large in our history courses for a generation at least. Not only

will the subject be given considerable attention, but many of the rules that have been observed in the treatment of wars as topics in history will be completely discarded. The battles of the Marne and the Aisne, for example, are not going to be considered as mere events, just to be barely mentioned as we nowadays mention Waterloo, Gettysburg, and Sedan—and pass on. They are going to be explained in detail. Maps will be drawn, numerous pictures will be used, and many incidents will be told. Moreover, many other noteworthy military engagements in this war will be dealt with in like manner.

But more important than the place we are going to give this war in our history courses is the question as to what will be the effects of this interest in the purely military phase of the present war upon the manner in which we shall treat the history of former wars. Will we continue to deal with them in the same summary manner of the last few years, or will we put into their study something of the method by which we approach and deal with the present war? In attempting an answer to this question we shall always need to keep in mind the time element in our curricula. History is not the only subject offered in our educational institutions, neither is it the same in content from year to year as mathematics and the languages are. It is a rapidly expanding subject and it has to compete with other subjects, many of which are new and are insistent on recognition. It is, therefore, impossible for the history teacher to do all with his subject that he would like to do. He must be content to confine himself within a limited amount of time and to a limited number of topics. Recognizing these restrictions that rest upon the study of history as a subject in our curricula, let us see whether any change can be or should be made in our treatment of the great wars of former times.

At the outset let us admit that wars can not be entirely eliminated from history. The social scientists, the socialists and the pacifists have succeeded in reducing it to its lowest terms, but as long as history continues to be pursued as a subject of study, war will always remain a constituent element in that subject. Even supposing that wars should cease and that this one should prove to be the last, it would be doing violence to the subject if we should ignore war as a phase of history when it did exist.

Starting, then, with the proposition that war will always constitute a part of the content of the study of history, we may ask whether we should return to the old method of dealing with war and once more make it the chief topic. May we be saved from such a fall from grace as that! Far better to pursue our present method than to revert to what has been abandoned. But the present war is provoking us to ask questions about wars and warfare that we have seldom thought of; or, if we thought of them, we did not consider them worth pursuing very far. Let us see what suggestions we can get from some of these questions.

For example, the very methods and agencies of destruction employed in the present war raise the question as to the methods and agencies employed in earlier

wars. Many of those in use to-day are new. The aeroplane and the submarine have come into effective use in this war as implements of warfare for the first time. New explosives and new types of guns and projectiles have been introduced. Even the trench has been so systematically used as to make it appear to most people as altogether new, though as a matter of fact breastworks and sapping have long been in use. The present war has been marked also for the immense numbers of men under arms and confronting each other, and for the manner in which, after the first few weeks, it settled down to a series of duels between sectors of the almost continuous line of trenches surrounding the Central Powers.

Now these familiar facts concerning the present war ought to furnish us with at least one very definite problem as we approach the study of the wars of the past, namely, what were the methods and agencies employed in those wars? Suppose we should take up this problem in connection with the Punic wars, the campaigns of Cæsar, and the Napoleonic wars. We should not only see Hannibal crossing the Alps, Cæsar pursuing the Gauls, and Napoleon humbling the Austrians, but we should become acquainted with the methods of making war that were characteristic of these men, and would thus get a new view of the times in which they lived. Furthermore, if some sort of an effort was made to study the arms and armament used, not in just one or two wars, but in the various wars from earliest times to the present, we would be able to trace the evolution of the science of warfare from the simple stone hatchet of primitive times to the complicated enginery of destruction used to-day. In tracing this evolution we should see how in the long-drawn-out series of conflicts one type of weapon displaces another, how a new weapon demands a new means of defense, and how this new means of defense produces the necessity of a new method of offense. This method of procedure would add to our opportunities to discover the principle of continuity in history, which is one of the most desired ends to be attained in the study of the subject. We might also perceive the futility of one nation trying to outstrip another in armament. The history of warfare shows that when nations attempt to outdo each other in preparation for war, they enter upon a practically never-ending race, which becomes swifter and more exhausting as it continues. Let the historian and the history teacher make that fact clear to the students of this generation and they will in time contribute greatly to the forces that are making for the ultimate disarmament of the nations of the world and for the league to enforce peace.

In undertaking to develop the methods of warfare employed from time to time, it might be well to study some of the great battles in detail. A study of Hastings, Crecy, Lutzen, Mantua and Sedan, for example, would afford an opportunity to bring out the methods of warfare of William the Conqueror, the Black Prince, Gustavus Adolphus, Napoleon, Von Moltke, and other men of their times.

However important it may be to trace the evolution of the modern methods of warfare from their earliest beginnings, it is still more important to attempt to get at the significance of the great wars of the past, especially those of modern times. Every history teacher raises the question with his classes as to the causes and the effects of the Thirty Years War, the War of the Spanish Succession, and the great Napoleonic wars, and he doubtless takes up for discussion the terms upon which these wars were brought to a close. Now it so happens that the wars just mentioned have some interesting points in common with each other and with the present war. For one thing, all the leading powers of Europe were involved in each of these wars. Again, in each some one power was attempting to dominate all the rest of Europe. What an opportunity there is here for comparing the situation then and now! What new interest can be given to the Treaty of Westphalia, the Treaty of Utrecht, and the Congress of Vienna, when it is understood that they brought about a resettlement of all of Europe, just as in some future congress the affairs of the world are going to be resettled. What a fine problem can be set before the students for them to work out as they proceed with their study of modern times! Given the map of Europe in the sixteenth century and as it was at the opening of the present war: show how through the wars of the intervening period the map of the sixteenth century became that of 1914. When the present war is closed, extend that problem down to date. In solving that problem it will be seen, among other things, how the dominance of Spain in the sixteenth century gave way to that of France in the seventeenth century, and how England supplanted France in the eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries, and how Germany has risen with ambitions "to make for herself a place in the sun" in these latter years. It is only by thinking of the great wars of modern times as constituting a series, and not as isolated struggles, that we get at their real significance and their bearing upon the present-day conditions.

From what has been said it would seem that the present war is reviving our interest in the military phase of history and is forcing upon us a reconsideration of the significance of the great wars of the past. Once more we see how history as a subject for study adjusts itself to conform to the dominating interests of the times. That this renaissance in the military phase of history will remain unchanged and undiminished for all time to come is not to be expected, especially if we should some day enter upon a period of permanent world-wide peace. But for the present the study of wars is again finding favor. The military historian is coming back into his own. Let it be hoped that this revival of interest in military history will contribute not only to a better understanding of the past, but to the making of wars an impossibility in the future!

# The Study of Nations—An Experiment

BY HARRIET E. TUELL, HIGH SCHOOL, SOMERVILLE, MASS.

The Bulletin on Social Studies recently published by the National Bureau of Education, and already familiar to readers of *THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE*,<sup>1</sup> offers to the teacher of European history much food for thought. Hitherto the special aims in teaching European history have been only vaguely defined. In this report, however, the committee in charge, which bears the rather formidable name of the Committee on Social Studies of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National Education Association, lays special emphasis on the function of the history of other nations in the schools as an instrument for inculcating an *international* spirit in distinction from the aim of the study of American history, which is the development of *national* patriotism. In the words of the report: "One of the conscious purposes of instruction in the history of nations other than our own should be the cultivation of a sympathetic understanding of such nations and their peoples, of an intelligent appreciation of their contributions to civilization and of a just attitude toward them."

In the furtherance of that aim it has been proposed that one year of the history course in the high school be supplemented by a course called "A Study of Nations," starting with the present condition of typical modern nations and using the history of each nation as an explanation of its present place in civilization. The hope is expressed that history, used in this way, may "tend to reduce friction in international relations, as such friction often results from popular clamor, born of a lack of understanding of foreign nations," that it may "help to a truer understanding and appreciation of the foreigners who come to our shores," and "lead us to be more helpful in our relations with backward peoples." These suggestions, made by Clarence D. Kingsley, the chairman of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, have been further elaborated by him in an article in "School and Society."<sup>2</sup> "The idea should be developed," Mr. Kingsley says in part, "that every nation has or may have something of worth to contribute to other nations, and to humanity as a whole. . . . This conception of the supplementary value of the dissimilarities of the different nations and peoples, together with the ideal of human brotherhood, which is generally thought of in terms of es-

sential similarity, should do much to establish genuine internationalism, free from sentiment, founded on fact, and actually operative in the affairs of nations."

The proposed course in the "Study of Nations" commended itself to the mind of the writer for several reasons. First, the point of approach from the present day seemed to offer to the beginner in history a more inviting prospect than the traditional mode of procedure. The first pages of the text-books are generally sufficiently uninspiring to deter all but the most ambitious from any further voluntary pursuit of the subject. Only rarely is any attempt made to enlist the interest of the pupil as a means to the effective mobilization of his intellectual forces. The writer once asked a class of beginners why they were going to study history. They replied promptly and unanimously, "Because we have to." When asked why they supposed the learned men who decide what subjects shall be required for admission to college had included history among the requirements, they were at a loss. Finally two or more ventured the explanation: "Because, if they didn't, there would be no more history teachers." The incident was a painful revelation. If a subject so full of richness and variety as history offers to the beginner no more alluring vista than an unbroken line of history teachers, clearly a new way of approach must be found. Just now the great war has set the whole adult world to searching the facts of history in the hope of finding explanation of its strange phenomena. Why not use it in the same way to minister to the need of high school pupils?

Moreover, this use of current events as an approach to history bids fair to free the teacher from the constant temptation to cheapen history in order to popularize it. So much has been said of the necessity of "making history interesting," that teachers have resorted to every device in the effort to lighten its traditional burden of dullness. Some have gone into the show business, more or less legitimately. Others have placed their reliance on colored crayon, and have apparently measured the value of their historical instruction by the amount of manual labor they have extracted from the pupils. The proposed course calls for no such artificial stimulus. It meets the pupil at the point of his present interest, and there ministers to his growth, according to the most approved modern pedagogy. The teacher is a guide, not a task master, and his most insidious temptation is removed.

The most convincing recommendation for the "Study of Nations" lies in the fact that it promises to meet the social aims of historical study more directly and effectively than the traditional course in modern history. The general aim of all social studies is the stimulation and development in pupils of an enlightened social conscience. The special function of the study of modern history, as indicated by the

<sup>1</sup> For the report in full, see *HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE*, January, 1917. Published also as Bulletin 28 for 1916 of the U. S. Bureau of Education. These suggestions were based, in part, upon the recommendation of Dr. Felix Adler, head and founder of the Ethical Culture School, New York City, that schools and colleges teach the "Science of Nations."

<sup>2</sup> Kingsley, Clarence D., "The Study of Nations: Its Possibilities as a Social Study in High Schools." "School and Society," Vol. III, p. 37-41, January 8, 1916.

committee, is to extend the scope of the individual conscience until it includes all humanity in the range of its activities. To this end prejudice must be broken down and an intelligent appreciation of alien peoples developed. In theory all our courses in European history have been supposed to do this automatically. Indeed, many teachers will contend that no reorganization of material is necessary for the purpose. Yet experience has shown in many cases that the old mechanism was clumsy and likely to miss fire. Many a high school pupil can give a very good account of the work of Italian statesmen and thinkers for the making of united Italy without in the least disturbing his conclusion, drawn from observation, that all Italians are bricklayers, and equally without bringing the alien "Dago" within the range of his sympathies. It sometimes seems as if, under our present educational system, the child's mind was divided into three entirely distinct and mutually exclusive compartments, one devoted to Sunday-school, one devoted to day school and one to life. It is a rare child, indeed, that allows any intercommunication between the three. The pupil who reads in the newspaper of a "drive on Jerusalem" looks with amazed incredulity at the teacher who suggests that the unknown city is the familiar Jerusalem of the Sunday-school lesson. In the same way, school and life belong to entirely distinct realms of thought, and none but the most direct methods succeed in establishing the necessary connection between them. The proposed "Study of Nations" is built around the idea that history is an explanation of life and necessary to a comprehension of its meaning. With that understanding the leading nations of Europe are presented in bird's-eye view, and an attempt is made to appreciate and evaluate the peculiar gifts of each to the modern world. If successfully carried out, such a course promises to make a direct appeal to the sympathy and imagination of the class, and to lead them to the conclusion of a little girl in the class in community civics: "We can't tell where our community ends."

Last year, as an experiment, the work of a class in modern history in the Somerville High School was reorganized to follow approximately the suggestions of the Committee on Social Studies. The accompanying outline for "The Study of Nations" was prepared as a guide. Although purely in the experimental stage, the course proved so full of interesting possibilities that an account of it may be of general interest. The class which was chosen for the experiment was in the third year of the general course. This course provides for community civics the first year, European history to about 1700 the second year, and modern European history the third year. The pupils were already familiar with the methods of historical study and with the methods of community civics. They had had practice in the use of the library and in the handling of historical material. They were intensely interested in the great war, but had already come to realize that they were handicapped in trying to understand it by their ignorance of the nations involved. The war, then, was the natural starting-

place, and one by one the warring nations were passed in review. This attempt to interpret the nations of Europe for the comprehension of high school pupils is an audacious undertaking for any one person. It must be understood that the work was purely experimental, and is published as a nucleus for suggestion and improvement. By co-operative effort it is hoped that a really satisfactory outline may be evolved, which will guide and supplement the work of the individual teacher.

As it stands, the work is undoubtedly too extended for a standard course. At this time, however, when all the nations of Europe are in the limelight, it seemed best to satisfy legitimate curiosity even at the expense of thoroughness in treatment. The bibliography, too, is the product of expediency rather than of wisdom. The books mentioned are those which were available for use, not necessarily those best adapted to the purpose.

For several reasons France seemed to afford the best opening to the subject. No other nation, perhaps, has made so wide an appeal to the adult world. Benjamin Franklin voiced a common sentiment when he said that every man has two countries, his own and France. French philosophers and French revolutionists alike have so far dominated the thought of Europe that an understanding of the French people would seem to lay the foundation for an understanding of the rest of Europe. On this theory three months of the year were devoted to the topics on France. As the class had already studied early European history, much of the historical work was review. Beginning with the old regime and the revolution, however, the historical topics were discussed with considerable care. The special topics on French art and handicrafts were prepared with a view to a visit to the Boston Museum of Fine Arts. After the reports were made the class visited the Museum, and under the able guidance of the docent were shown many characteristic specimens of French workmanship. This visit rounded up the work on France very satisfactorily, for one girl, at least, who remarked as she left the Museum, "I know I shan't like any other country as well as France."

As a key to the inner meaning of the story, extracts from George Meredith's "France, 1870," were used as summaries. This use of the poem and the introduction of Miss Cones' "Chant of Love for England" in the following section has been criticized as sentimental. Perhaps it is open to that objection. The motive for their use in this way was to give to the work emotional content and carrying power. Pupils sometimes speak of "the cold bare facts of history." In order to give light and warmth to these facts it is necessary to fire the imagination and to open the mind to some dim appreciation of the significance of historical events as a part of human experience. This is the office of poetry.

France and England are the only countries that in this first year received anything like adequate treatment. When we began the study of Russia, the first exciting events of the Russian revolution were filling

the newspapers. The reports of the daily press were used as the point of departure, and the work of the class was bent to the effort to discover the causes of the struggle. Here the new method was much more to the mind of the class than the chronological order. As one of them said, "We wonder why certain revolutions break out, and if we start to study the beginning of the nation's progress, it would be a long time before we found out the cause of the present outbreak among the people of the nation." After Russia, other nations were taken up in barest outline. At the end of the year, by way of final summary a brief review was undertaken in order to trace, even though but slightly, the working of the principle of nationality in modern history, and to discover any counterbalancing tendencies in the direction of internationalism.

To attempt any final calculation of results after a single year of experiment would of course be absurd. It is only possible at most to determine general tendencies so far as they appear in the single group of pupils, and endeavor to find out which way the wind is blowing. Only the coming years can tell how far the thirty members of the class developed enlightened social consciences, and even then no one will know how much was due to the study of nations. Yet some sort of rough measurement is necessary if the experiment is to have any value as a guide for the future. To this end no better basis for judgment has offered itself than the suggestions of Mr. George Macaulay Trevelyan for gauging the effectiveness of historical reading for adults. It will be remembered that Mr. Trevelyan, in his delightful essay, "Clio, A Muse," discusses the value of history as a school of political wisdom, and comes to the conclusion that mere historical information is only of value as it produces "a state of mind" calculated "to breed enthusiasm," "to break down prejudice," and "to suggest ideals." A "state of mind" made up of these component parts would meet exactly the aims of the Committee on Social Studies. These qualities may be accepted as the essential tests of all historical study, whether for children or adults.

By the aid of this analysis the pupils who had completed the course in "The Study of Nations" were questioned in order to detect indications of budding enthusiasm, of weakening prejudice and of new ideals of political righteousness and social justice. The answers received were so illuminating as to the pupil's point of view that it seems worth while to quote them somewhat at length.

First, they were encouraged to write in their own way what benefits they had derived from the course. They seized on the part of the work that most nearly concerned their present interest, and naturally they measured their gains in terms of knowledge. It was a source of satisfaction to them that they were now able to understand something of the war, and to enter into discussions about it with some measure of intelligence. Differences in personality give color to their statements. One wrote modestly, "I have derived benefit from my year's course in history, although it might not appear so to many people. It

has been like reviewing a story of the nation instead of cold, bare facts of history, and has stimulated my interest in the different nations, as to their welfare, what they were, and what they stand for to-day." Another one, less modest, wrote: "The benefits I have derived from the course are: (1) Know all about different nations, languages, religions, customs, etc.: (2) found out about best kinds of governments for and by the people and also the worst kind; (3) I also found out there were other countries besides the United States which had governments as good as ours, and languages, customs, etc., which are different from ours." This declaration of omniscience was rather appalling. Evidently more care must be taken another year to lead all pupils to the conclusion of one boy who rejoiced that he was now able to read the newspapers and follow the moves of both sides "almost intelligently."

On another occasion pupils were asked to write which method they had found more interesting and profitable—the chronological order or the approach from the present. As this class had had one year of history conducted in the conventional way by an excellent teacher, they were able to make an intelligent comparison. Three of them declared for the old method as less confusing. This is clearly a criticism of the present teacher, not necessarily of the method. The greatest care must be exercised in outlining the work and presenting a clear-cut foundation. The material must not be "so spread out that there is nothing to set the teeth into," as some one has expressed it. That is a danger that can be guarded against with greater experience in handling the work. Even with this difficulty, however, 90 per cent. of the class voted for the new method as more interesting and profitable. As one of them wrote: "It is more interesting to take present conditions and situations and trace them back to their source than to start at the beginning and come through the years up. It is more tiresome and uninteresting to follow history dog-like and grammar school fashion up through the present. It is more fascinating to take an existing fact and seek the reasons for it than to start with the reasons plus many details which will be forgotten, and aim at the point." In the words of another: "I think that in this way it is more interesting, for when we spend so much time on the history of years ago we get so tired and sick of it that we don't have a spark of interest left for present-day conditions." A third said: "The present time arouses your interest so that you don't mind studying the earlier part so much." In justice to the work of the preceding year the testimony of the pupil who had always found history the favorite study should be considered, as well as that of the boy who wrote: "I like history this year just as well as I ever did, and that is going some." On the whole, the judgment of the class was decidedly in favor of the new course. Moreover, these remarks were an unexpected revelation as to the need for reform in the older method.

It will be observed also that the answers are absolutely frank, without any attempt to write what would



be pleasing. The pupils were instructed not to sign the papers and to speak with absolute sincerity. There is every evidence that they obeyed instructions.

As a test of their power in dealing with public questions, they were asked whether they read the newspapers with more interest and intelligence in June than in September previous. Here the answers were almost unanimously in the affirmative. One spoke as a fair representative who said: "Around September when I read the newspapers I always read the comic pictures and that is all, but lately I've been reading every word of it for fear I'd miss something I might need to know."

The most interesting development from the work was in the direction of its main purpose—to break down prejudice and broaden the sympathies. One day the pupils were asked to state whether as a result of their study they found themselves more broad-minded, more sympathetic toward people of alien race and customs. Of course they did not know that they were being used as laboratory specimens. The question appealed to their love of self-analysis, however, and in the most naive fashion they examined their consciences and reported.

Many of them simply said: "Yes!" or "Yes, I think so." One said: "If not broad-minded, at least awakened." Another, taking the question more personally, wrote: "I have unconsciously formed the habit of thinking out problems that come up from the relationship of the nations, and not taking sides or becoming over-sure of myself. I think I can appreciate correction or criticism on any subject with a better grace than I could before I took the course." The next one said: "I am learning to be more tolerant, but it comes hard." Another: "I think perhaps I am more broad-minded, for by studying about the customs, government and sentiments of different nations, some of the petty prejudices I held toward them have disappeared."

Several pupils went into more detail and explained just where their prejudices and misconceptions had weakened. "The principal benefit I have gained," said one, "is the appreciation and value of some of the Europeans. Most pupils, like myself, thought Italy a land of bricklayers, Russia one of anarchists, etc. Now, Italy an important factor in the development of a country, Russia, progressive in quite a few ways. In general I have learned that most countries in a general way are similar." Another one wrote: "I am in greater sympathy with the Russian people than before. I always had the idea that they were just a slovenly, ignorant race. However, I realize now that it is all due to the oppression of the ruling forces. For the Germans, I look upon them with a broader view. For instance, I did not know much about the Germans. Since studying history I have seen things from a different point of view. I always thought them an easy-going intellectual race of people; in fact, admired the race in general. Now I know for a fact that they are a well-educated, well-cared-for people. Of course, in the present war I naturally would feel a hatred for Germany, which I

do. For now that I understand the good training of the German people I cannot understand many of their seemingly barbaric actions." Yet another testimony is: "Of course I have no love for Germany, but in the study of her country I found many things in which I admire German efficiency. I look upon Germany with much more tolerance than I did before I studied about it. Also some of the Balkan States, I have great pity for them. I never had much liking for a Greek, but since I have learned about their bravery and courage I like them quite well."

Others have reached the point where they are ready to generalize a little, as this one: "I do look upon people with different customs with more tolerance and sympathy, because I found that their customs were to them just the same as ours are to us, and many of their customs are better too. I found that they have their points of view the same as anybody else." As another one put it: "We are all foreigners to some one." They were all approaching the feeling expressed in broken English by an Armenian boy: "I don't look upon people of difference customs. I look upon people same as I look upon my brother." The Armenian made a mental reservation against the Turk, for when he was asked to tell what he knew of the Turks to-day, he replied: "They don't like us, so of course we don't like them. I can't talk of them." We hope the little girl of German parentage had no mental reservation when she wrote: "The world is my country. All are my brothers."

When the pupils were asked if they had gained any hints from the experience of Europeans for the betterment of their own country the answers were varied. "We might be more efficient, don't you think?" queried one. Others had found new ideals of public service in the German government of cities, social legislation in Germany and England, government ownership of railways, care for the unemployed, and the ideals if not the program of the socialists.

From the comments of these boys and girls one receives with every sentence an impression of expanding intelligence reacting with vigor and power upon the material presented for study. Their little world had grown bigger and more full of meaning as the year progressed. At the same time their attitude toward it had changed. More nearly than before they had approached the "state of mind" indicated by Mr. Trevelyan. Their remarks may indicate only mild enthusiasm for the study of history, but in the more important matter of the conduct of public affairs their interest is increasingly keen. The bars raised by prejudice are breaking down and the background of the community life is infinitely extended. At the same time new ideals of tolerance, of efficiency, of community welfare are slowly being formed.

If, as has been said, the hymn of hate is but the logical outcome of national history taught in national schools, the American teacher may well view with hospitality any suggestion, like this of the Committee on Social Studies, which promises to provide for the student of national history in our schools a background of international sympathy. With all due at-

tention to national patriotism, the American youth, himself a product of mingled nationalities, must be trained to acceptance of Goethe's great sentiment: "Above all nations is humanity."

#### OUTLINE OF THE STUDY OF NATIONS.<sup>3</sup>

BY HARRIET E. TUELL, HIGH SCHOOL, SOMERVILLE, MASS.

1916-17.

#### FRANCE.

##### General references:

- "France Under the Republic," John Charlemagne Bracq.
- "France and the French," Charles Dawbarn.
- "Outlines of Medieval and Modern History," Philip Van Ness Myers.
- "National Geographic Magazine":
  - "The France of To-day," Major Gen. A. W. Greeley, September, 1914.
  - "The Beauties of France," Arthur Stanley Riggs, November, 1915.
  - "The World's Debt to France," November, 1915.
- "History of Western Europe," J. H. Robinson.
- "Medieval and Modern Times," J. H. Robinson.
- "Outlines of European History," J. H. Robinson and C. Beard.
- "Development of Modern Europe," J. Robinson and C. Beard.
- "The Statesman's Year-Book."
- Keynote: "France, 1870," George Meredith.

#### Topics.

- A. The Land of France.
  - I. Map work, France in 1914.
  - II. Products of France—"Bountiful fair land of vine and grain."
- B. Industries of France—"Mother of Luxuries."
  - "Transcendent in her foundries, arts, and looms."
  - Special topics preparatory to a visit to the Museum of Fine Arts.
  - French Porcelain.
    - "History of French Porcelain," Eugène Müntz.
  - French Furniture.
    - "History of Furniture," Albert Jacquemart.
    - "Chats on Old Furniture," Arthur Hayden.
  - French Lace.
    - "The Lace Book," M. Hudson Moore.
    - "A History of Lace," Mrs. Bury Palliser.
  - French Tapestry.
    - "Tapestry," Alfred de Champeaux.
    - "Hand Loom Weaving," Luther Hooper.
    - "Short History of Tapestry," Eugène Müntz.
  - Biographical Sketches: Louis Blériot and Mme. Paquin.
    - "Makers of Modern France," Charles Dawbarn.
- C. The Fine Arts in France (preparatory to Boston Art Museum study).
  - French Painters as Illustrated in Masters in Art.
  - French Sculptors.
    - "Handbook of Modern French Sculpture," Dan. Cady Eaton.
  - French Cathedrals.
    - "Notre Dame de Paris," Charles Heatt.
    - "Cathedrals of Northern France," Francis Miltoun.
    - "Cathedrals of Southern France," Francis Miltoun.

<sup>3</sup> This course dealt only with European nations, because it was offered as a modification of "Modern European History." The selection of typical nations might well include an Asiatic and a South American nation.

#### D. The French Nation.

- I. Introductory study, discussion of question, How does it happen that we have a distinct nation called France?

(a) Review in text-book of the beginnings of France after the break-up of Charlemagne's empire and the treaties of Verdun and Mersen.

(b) Development of the French nation under the early Capetians.

#### References:

- "The Growth of the French Nation," George Burton Adams.
- "History of Western Europe," J. H. Robinson.
- "Medieval and Modern Times," J. H. Robinson.

#### II. Beginnings of the French Language.

#### References:

- Any historical grammar of the French language.
- "History of the Middle Ages," Dana Carlton Munro. (The Strassburg Oaths.)

#### III. Development of French chivalry and romance as shown in the Crusades and the medieval romances.

France, "Mother of heroes."

France, "Mother of honor."

France, "Mother of glory."

#### References:

- General accounts of the Crusades.
- "Chanson de Roland" in translation.
- Special consideration of typical heroes.
- Charlemagne in history and in romance.
- Chevalier Bayard, Stephen of Blois, Godfrey de Bouillon, Louis IX.

#### E. Logical and orderly quality of the French mind as shown by French experiments in government.

- I. Review of the feudal system, most logically developed in France.

#### II. Development of monarchy in reaction from the evils of feudalism. Study of Richelieu, Mazarin and Louis XIV.

Special Topic: Expression of French politeness in the elaborate etiquette of the court of Louis XIV.

Reference: "A Lady of the Old Régime," Ernest Henderson.

#### F. France the missionary to Europe of the doctrine of Liberté, Egalité, Fraternité.

"O she that made the brave appeal  
For manhood when our time was dark,  
And from our fetters drove the spark  
Which was as lightning to reveal  
New seasons with the swifter play  
Of pulses, and benigner day," etc.

The evils of the old régime.

Successive experiments in government.

Importance of the Declaration of the Rights of Man.

Historic figures in the struggle.

Emergence of the French national song and the flag of the Republic.

The revolutionary spirit as a military force.

War with the old monarchies.

Permanent gains from the struggle.

#### References:

- "The French Revolution" (selections), Thomas Carlyle.
- "The French Revolution," Bertha Meriton Gardiner.
- "The French Revolution," William O'Connor Morris.
- "Outlines of Medieval and Modern History," Philip Van Ness Myers.
- "History of Western Europe," J. H. Robinson.
- "Medieval and Modern Times," J. H. Robinson.

- "Outlines of European History," Vol. II, J. H. Robinson and Charles A. Beard.  
 "Development of Modern Europe," Vol. I, J. H. Robinson and Charles A. Beard.

#### G. The Napoleonic Tradition.

"Ah, what a dawn of splendour, when her sowers  
 Went forth and bent the necks of populations  
 And of their terrors and humiliations  
 Wove her the starry wreath that earthward lowers  
 Now in the figure of a burning yoke," etc.

Text-book study of career of Napoleon.  
 Rapid review of period of reconstruction and experiment.

France under the third Napoleon.  
 Character of Napoleon.  
 Evils of the Napoleonic ideal.

#### H. The lesson of 1870 by which France is profiting to-day.

"Lo, strength is of the plain root-Virtues born:  
 Strength shall ye gain by service, prove in scorn,  
 Train by endurance, by devotion shape,  
 Strength is not won by miracle or rape,  
 It is the offspring of the modest years;  
 The gift of sire to son, thro' those firm laws  
 Which we name God's, which are the righteous cause,  
 The cause of man and manhood's ministers."

Frugality and economy as French characteristics.  
 Prompt payment of the German indemnity.

French devotion to work as a fine art.  
 Reference: "French Perspectives," Vol. VII, Elizabeth Shepley Sergeant.

Thoroughness of the French educational system.

References: "The French of To-day," Barrett Wendell.

"France Under the Republic," J. C. Bracq.

"France and the French," Charles Dawbarn.

#### I. The French Government of To-day.

Circumstances under which it was formed.

Peculiar characteristics.

Comparison with government of the United States.

References:

"Europe Since 1815," Charles Downer Hazen.

"The Governments of Europe," F. A. Ogg.

"Medieval and Modern Times," J. H. Robinson.

"Development of Modern Europe," Vol. II, Robinson and Beard.

"Statesman's Year Book."

Special Topics:

Raymond Poincare, Aristide Briand.

"Makers of Modern France," Charles Dawbarn.

#### J. Colonies and Dependencies of France.

References:

"The Children of the Nations," Poultney Bigelow.

"The New Map of Africa," Herbert Adams Gibbons.

"Europe Since 1815," Charles Downer Hazen.

"Peoples and Politics of the Far East," Henry Norman.

"Development of Modern Europe," Vol. II, J. H. Robinson and C. A. Beard.

"History of Contemporary Civilization," Charles Seignobos.

#### K. Relations between Church and State in France.

The Edict of Nantes.

Revocation of the Edict of Nantes.

Civil constitution of the clergy.

Concordat of 1801.

Separation of Church and State in 1905.

Recent developments of the religious question.

#### References:

"Development of Modern Europe," Vol. II, Robinson and Beard.

"Medieval and Modern Times," J. H. Robinson.

"France and the French," Charles Dawbarn.

"France Under the Republic," J. C. Bracq.

L. Economic and Social Experiments in France.

Reference:

"France Under the Republic," J. C. Bracq.

M. France and the Great War.

References:

"Medieval and Modern Times," J. H. Robinson.

"Outlines of European History," Vol. II, Robinson and Beard.

"History of England," Supplement, Edward Potts Cheyney.

#### THE STUDY OF NATIONS.

##### ENGLAND.

Keynote: Shakespeare: "Richard II." "This royal throne of kings," etc.

Helen Gray Cone: "The Chant of Love for England," second stanza.

A. English liberties the great gift of England to the world.

I. What are the fundamental English liberties?

Liberty of person.

Free control of property.

Equal justice before the law.

A share in the government by the people.

Reference: Magna Charta.

II. What have English liberties cost?

(a) Great landmarks in the struggle.

Magna Charta, 1215.

Confirmation of the Charter.

Petition of Right, 1628.

Puritan Revolution, 1640.

Bill of Rights, 1689.

(b) Outline of the struggle for liberty of person.

1. Magna Charta.

Its basis: Charter of Henry I.

Leader of Struggle: Stephen Langton.

Provisions.

"No man shall be seized or imprisoned or dispossessed or outlawed save by legal judgment of his peers or by the law of the land."

2. Petition of Right, 1628.

Arbitrary imprisonment and martial law forbidden.

3. Civil war caused partly by the attempted arrest of the five members.

4. Habeas Corpus Act.

Provision against delay of justice.

(c) Outline of struggle for free control of property.

1. Provisions of Magna Charta.

None but the customary feudal aids to be demanded by the King without the consent of the Great Council of the Baronage.

Means of livelihood to be left even to the poorest.

2. Confirmation of the Charter by Edward I.

No taxation without the consent of the Council.

3. Power of the Good Parliament.

Control of taxation.

4. Interruption of development under the Tudor sovereign.

5. Parliamentary protest against benevolences under James I.

6. Petition of Right.

Forced loans and benevolences forbidden by act of Parliament.

7. Matters in dispute put to the test of civil war.
8. Parliamentary control of taxation secured by Bill of Rights.
- (d) Outline for struggle for a share in the government. England, "Mother of Parliaments."
1. Period of struggle for a voice in the government by representation of the people (1215 to 1640).
  - (a) Provision in the Great Charter for a Great Council of the Baronage.
  - (b) Parliament of Simon de Montfort (1265).
  - (c) Model Parliament of Edward I (1295).  
Called by the King.  
Two representatives from every shire and two burgesses from every borough.
  - (d) Powers exercised by the Good Parliament.  
Control of taxation, control of legislation, control of the King's ministers.
  - (e) Position of Parliament under the Tudor sovereigns.  
Parliament subservient to the sovereign, but each sovereign somewhat influenced by public opinion.
  - (f) Under James I royal proclamations declared by Parliament not to have the force of law.
2. Period of struggle to establish the principle of parliamentary control of the government (1620 to 1683).
  - (a) Under the Stuart sovereigns.  
Position of King.  
Claim to rule by divine right.  
Position of Parliamentarians.  
The right to rule a prerogative of the representatives of the people.  
Chief weapon of Parliament.  
The power of the purse.  
Important points in the struggle.  
Fight for freedom of speech in Parliament.  
Case of Sir John Eliot.  
Attempted arrest of the five members.  
Fight for control of taxation.  
Petition of Right.  
Fight for control of the King's ministers.  
Attempted impeachment of Buckingham.  
Trial and execution of Strafford.  
Hampden and the ship money contest.
  - (b) Culmination of the struggle.  
Civil war and execution of the king.
  - (c) Commonwealth, protectorate and reign of Charles I successive experiments in reorganization.
  - (d) Final victory of Parliament in the Revolution of 1688.

## References:

- "History of England," Charles M. Andrews.  
 "Student's History of England," Samuel Rawson Gardiner.  
 "Elements of English Constitutional History," F. C. Montague.  
 "Selected Readings in English History," Tuell and Hatch.
3. Struggle to establish popular control of Parliament.
    - (a) Liberty of the Press.  
Expiration of the Licensing Act, 1693.
    - (b) Extension of the Franchise.  
Great Reform Bill of 1832.  
Reform Bill of 1867.  
Reform Bill of 1884.  
Recent struggle for Woman Suffrage.

- (c) Establishment of popular control of the King's ministers.  
Development of the Cabinet.  
The Cabinet of To-day.  
Its members.  
Its relation to the King.  
Its relation to the House of Commons.
- (d) The Revolution of 1911. Establishment of popular control of the House of Lords.  
Abolition of veto power of the House of Lords.

## References:

- "History of England," Charles M. Andrews.  
 "Short History of England with Supplement," Edward P. Cheyney.  
 "Readings in English History," Edward P. Cheyney.  
 "Modern European History," Charles D. Hazen.  
 "Constitutional History of England," Vol. III, T. E. May.  
 "Elements of English Constitutional History," F. C. Montague.  
 "The Theory and Practice of the English Government," T. F. Moran.  
 "The Governments of Europe," Frederick A. Ogg.  
 "Medieval and Modern Times," James Harvey Robinson.  
 "Development of Modern Europe," Robinson and Beard.  
 "Outlines of European History," Vol. II, Robinson and Beard.  
 "Selected Readings in English History," Tuell and Hatch.  
 "The Modern World," Willis M. West.
- B. England the Mother of Colonies.  
Map study of the present dominions of Great Britain.  
Comparison of the spirit of Shakespeare's England "A jewel set in a silver sea," with Miss Cone's "Glory of ships that sought far goals."
  1. England's part in the explorations of the fifteenth century.  
Work of John Cabot and the basis of England's claim to North America.
  2. The Merchant Adventurers.
  3. English mariners of the Elizabethan Age.  
Drake, Frobisher, Hawkins, Sir Humphrey Gilbert and Sir Walter Raleigh.  
The spirit and motive of their explorations.
  4. Great trading companies of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries—Muscovy Company, Levant Company, Guinea Company, East India Company, London Company, and Plymouth Company.  
Extent of English commercial influence.  
Part played by the government in the work of the companies.  
The American colonies as business enterprises.
  5. The eighteenth century a hundred years of struggle for colonial supremacy.  
Underlying doctrine: The mercantilist theory in economics.  
Outline of the struggle with France.
    - (a) In North America.  
Landmarks: Treaty of Utrecht, 1713  
Peace of Paris, 1763.  
Treaty of Versailles, 1783.
    - (b) In India.  
Work of Clive.  
Work of Hastings.  
Reorganization of the government of India.
    - (c) Struggle for self-defence against Napoleon.  
Nelson and Wellington.  
Special topic: Study of English poetry as an index to the national feeling of the period.

## References:

- "History of England," Charles M. Andrews.  
 "European Background of American History," Edward P. Cheyney.  
 "History of England in the Age of Elizabeth," Vol. I, Edward P. Cheyney.  
 "Supplement to Short History of England," Edward P. Cheyney.  
 "Outlines of English Industrial History," Cunningham and McArthur.  
 "History of Commerce," Clive Day.  
 "History of Commerce in Europe," H. de B. Gibbins.  
 "Development of Modern Europe," Robinson and Beard.  
 "England Overseas," Vols. II and III, I. W. Tilby.  
 "Expansion of the British Empire," W. H. Woodward.  
 6. Expansion of the British Empire in the Nineteenth Century.  
 (a) In India.  
 Struggle with the Mahratta Confederacy.  
 Extension of territory to the border of China.  
 Annexation in Burma.  
 Conquest of the Cindh and Punjab regions.  
 The Indian Mutiny.  
 Causes and results.  
 Condition in 1914.  
 (b) The Dominion of Canada.  
 The Canadian Rebellion; its causes and results.  
 Condition in 1914.  
 (c) The Australasian Colonies.  
 Early explorations.  
 Condition in 1914.  
 (d) In Africa.  
 (1) South Africa.  
 Cape Colony (work of Livingstone and Stanley).  
 First and Second Boer Wars.  
 (2) British Central African possessions.  
 (3) The English in Egypt.  
 Reasons for interference.  
 Campaign in the Soudan.  
 Present situation.  
 (4) England in the islands, East and West.  
 (5) England in the Far East.

## References:

- "History of Commerce," Clive Day.  
 "History of Commerce in Europe," H. de B. Gibbins.  
 "The New Map of Africa," Herbert Adam Gibbons.  
 "The Obvious Orient," Albert Bushnell Hart.  
 "Modern European History," Charles D. Hazen.  
 "Medieval and Modern Times," James Harvey Robinson.  
 "Development of Modern Europe," Robinson and Beard.  
 "Outlines of European History," Vol. II, Robinson and Beard.  
 "England Overseas," A. W. Tilby.  
 "The Expansion of the British Empire," W. H. Woodward.  
 "The Modern World," Willis M. West.

## C. Internal Changes in England affecting her commercial development.

- I. The Fight for Free Trade.  
 The Corn Laws and their repeal.  
 Adoption of Free Trade as a general policy.  
 II. The Industrial Revolution.  
 Change from the domestic to the factory system.  
 Results of the factory system, industrial, economic and social.

## References:

- "Introduction to the Social and Industrial History of England," Edward P. Cheyney.

"Outlines of English Industrial History," Cunningham and McArthur.

- "English Industrial History," H. de B. Gibbins.  
 "History of Industry in England," H. de B. Gibbins.  
 "History of Commerce in Europe," H. de B. Gibbins.  
 "Industrial History of Modern England," G. H. Perris.  
 "Development of Modern Europe," Vol. II, Robinson and Beard.  
 "Selected Readings in English History," Tuell and Hatch.

## D. Burning Questions at the Outbreak of the Great War.

## I. Home Rule for Ireland.

## Historical Survey.

1. The Period of Misrule.  
 Ireland under Henry II.  
 Ireland under the Tudors.  
 Poyning's Law.  
 Ireland under the Stuarts.  
 Wentworth in Ireland.  
 Cromwell's policy for Ireland.  
 National Uprising for the Stuarts.  
 Battle of the Boyne and the Treaty of Limerick.  
 Religious and economic oppression of Ireland in the eighteenth century.
2. Act of Union.
3. Nineteenth century attempts to redress Ireland's wrongs.  
 Catholic Emancipation Bill.  
 Land reforms.  
 Charles Stewart Parnell.  
 Disestablishment of the Irish Church.

## References:

- "History of England," Charles M. Andrews, Index Under Ireland.  
 "Short History of England," Supplement, Edward P. Cheyney.  
 "Ireland's Story," Johnston and Spencer.  
 "England in the Nineteenth Century," Justin McCarthy.  
 "England in Our Own Times," Justin McCarthy.  
 "Ireland," O'Connor Morris.  
 "Outlines of European History," Vol. II, Robinson and Beard.  
 "Ireland's Cause in England's Parliament," Goldwin Smith.  
 "Selected Readings in English History," Tuell and Hatch.

4. The Twentieth Century in Ireland.  
 Renewal of the Home Rule Struggle.  
 Difficulty with Ulster.  
 Historical explanation.  
 Policy of John Redmond.  
 Rebellion of 1915.  
 Policy of Lloyd George.

## II. War on Poverty.

- Workmen's Compensation Act.  
 Legislation in favor of Trade Unions.  
 Old Age Pensions.  
 Employment Bureaus.  
 Wage Boards.  
 National Insurance.  
 New Method of Taxation.  
 Lloyd George Budget.

## References:

- "Supplement," Edward P. Cheyney.  
 "Social Progress in Contemporary Europe," F. A. Ogg.  
 "Outlines of European History," Vol. II, Robinson and Beard.  
 "Modern World," Willis M. West.

## III. Socialism.

Its principles.

Organizations for extending Socialism.

Social Democratic Federation.

Fabian Society.

## References:

"Short History of England," Supplement, Cheyney, and other text-books as above.

## IV. Syndicalism.

## References:

"Syndicalism," John Graham Brooks.

"Supplement," Edward P. Cheyney.

## GERMANY.

## General References:

Statesman's Year Book.

"Germany and the Germans," Price Collier.

"German Life in Town and Country," Edgar Dawson.

"Germany of To-day," George Stuart Fullerton.

"Europe Since 1815," Charles D. Hazen.

"Modern European History," Charles D. Hazen.

"Socialized Germany," F. C. Howe.

"National Geographic Magazine," May, 1914, "The German Nation."

"History of Western Europe," James Harvey Robinson.

"Medieval and Modern Times," James Harvey Robinson.

"Development of Modern Europe," Robinson and Beard.

"Outlines of European History," Vol. II, Robinson and Beard.

"History of Modern Europe," Willis M. West.

"The Modern World," Willis M. West.

## A. Government of the German Empire.

Relation powers of Emperor, Bundesrath and Reichstag.

Position of Chancellor.

## Special Topics:

Comparison of position of the Kaiser with that of the King of England.

Comparison of position of the Chancellor with that of the British Premier.

Division of electoral districts compared with that in the United States.

Functions of the government in the German Empire compared with the functions of the United States government.

## Special References:

"Governments and Parties in Continental Europe," Lowell.

## B. Position and Influence of Prussia in the Empire.

Preponderating influence of Prussia in the German confederation.

Characteristic policies of the Prussian monarchy.

Absolutism; extension of territory; militarism.

Examples: Frederick II and William II.

## C. City Government.

Administration of German cities.

Expert training for municipal office.

Municipal socialism.

Appearance of German cities.

Method of city planning.

Provision for education and recreation.

Government care for citizens.

## Special References:

"European Cities at Work," F. C. Howe.

"Government of European Cities," William B. Monroe.

"Contemporary Civilization," Charles Seignobos.

## D. Historical Development of the German Empire Since 1815.

German Confederation of 1815.

Prussia's Custom Union.

The Frankfort Parliament and its Failure.

Work of Bismarck and William I (1858-1888).

Policy of Blood and Iron.

The Schleswig-Holstein War and its Results.

The Austro-Prussian War.

Formation of the North German Confederation.

The Franco-Prussian War.

Proclamation of the new German Empire at Versailles.

## E. Economic Germany.

Natural Resources.

Transportation System.

Rivers and Canals, Railroads and Ports.

Practical working of State Socialism.

Industries.

Organization of Industry.

Condition of the laborer in city and country.

Commerce.

Its extent.

Its methods.

Tariff policy and the free ports.

## Special References:

"Outlines of Economic History," Cheesman A. Herrick.

"Socialized Germany," F. C. Howe.

## Special Topics:

"Socialized Germany," the Port of Hamburg, Howe.

"Seen in Germany," the Lens Works at Jena, Baker.

"Seen in Germany," Shipbuilding, Baker.

"Socialized Germany," Mines, Forests and Agricultural Lands, Howe.

## F. Education in Germany.

General Characteristics.

Thoroughness.

Adaptation of educational system to all forms of public service.

Elementary Education.

Vocational Education.

The Gymnasias and Universities.

## G. Tendencies of German Literature and Thought.

Emphasis on the idea of duty, especially duty to one's country.

Kant, Fichte, Hegel.

Glorification of the German nation in

Schiller, historic drama.

German historians.

Great impetus given to the nationalist spirit.

Recent development of the Pan-German idea.

## H. German Expansion.

Colonies in Africa.

Island possessions.

Commercial interests in China, Asia Minor and Latin America.

## Special References:

"The New Map of Europe," Herbert Adams Gibbons.

"The New Map of Africa," Herbert Adams Gibbons.

## RUSSIA.

## General References:

Statesman's Year Book.

Text-books as above.

"The Children of the Nations," Poultney Bigelow.

"History of Commerce," Clive Day.

"Europe Since 1815," Charles D. Hazen.

"Outlines of Economic History," Cheesman A. Herrick.

"History of Commerce in Europe," H. D. Gibbons.

"Geography in Russian History," "Popular Science Monthly," January, 1915, Lingelbach.

"Russian Life in Town and Country," Palmer.

- "Through Central Asia," Graham Phillips.  
 "Russia in 1916," Graham Phillips.  
 "Development of Modern Europe," Robinson and Beard.  
 "Nationality and the War," A. J. Toynbee.  
 "War and Democracy," R. W. Seton-Watson.

#### A. The Land and Its Resources.

- Its vast extent.  
 Its varied character.  
 Difficulties in transportation.  
 Paucity of seaports.  
 The struggle for harbors.  
 1. Under Peter the Great.  
   Capture of Azov and Riga.  
   Building of St. Petersburg.  
 2. The Siberian Railway establishing connection with  
   Vladivostok.  
 3. Present struggle for railway communication with  
   the ice-free port of Semionova.

#### B. The Russian People.

- Races.  
 Characteristics.  
 Colonization within the Empire.

#### C. The Government of Russia.

- The revolutionary government of 1917.  
 I. Underlying causes of the revolution.  
   Absolutism of the Czars from Peter the Great to  
   Nicholas II.  
   Government policy of repression.  
   The spy system.  
   Exile to Siberia by judicial process and by admin-  
   istrative process.  
 II. Methods of Revolt.  
 1. Peaceful propaganda.  
 2. Use of the strike as a means of revolution.  
 3. War on the government by terrorists.  
 III. Representative organizations in the government.  
   The Douma.  
   Its origin and history.  
   The Zemstvo.

#### D. The Russian Religion.

- Origin of the Greek Catholic Church.  
 Organization of the Church.  
 Position of the Czar. Attitude towards the Jews.  
 Effect of the religion on foreign affairs.  
 Russia the natural protector of Greek Catholic Chris-  
 tians in the Balkan States.

#### E. Education in Russia.

- Large percentage of illiteracy.  
 Political tendencies of students.  
 Restriction on study of history and political science.

#### F. Russian treatment of subject peoples.

- Poland.  
 Finland.

#### ITALY.

##### A. Present Government of Italy.

##### B. Steps by which Italian unity was achieved.

- Italy in 1815 "a geographical expression."  
 Position of Piedmont in Italy.  
 Work of Mazzini and Cavour.  
 War of 1859 and its results.  
 Union of the northern states under Piedmont.  
 Garibaldi and the addition of the two Sicilies to the  
 union.  
 Acquisition of Venetia in 1868.  
 Final union with Rome as the capital in 1870.

##### C. Position of the Pope in Italy.

##### D. Economic condition of Italy.

##### E. Colonial ambitions.

- Italian part in the Triple Alliance due to jealousy at the  
 French annexation of Tunis.  
 Conquests in East Africa.  
 Occupation of Tripoli and Rhodes.

##### F. "Irridentism" as a moving force in Italian politics.

#### THE AUSTRO-HUNGARIAN DUAL MONARCHY.

##### References:

- Text-books as above:  
 "Governments and Parties in Continental Europe,"  
 Lowell.  
 "The Governments of Europe," F. A. Ogg.  
 "The Balkans," W. M. Sloane.

##### A. The people of Austria-Hungary.

- Various races within the empire; their mutual jealousies  
 and nationalist ambitions.

##### B. The Government.

- The dual monarchy.  
 The delegations.  
 The constitutions of Austria and Hungary.  
 Circumstances under which this government was formed  
 in 1867.

##### C. International Relations.

- Close alliance between Austria and Germany.  
 Extension of Austrian influence in the Balkans.  
 Administration of Bosnia and Herzegovina by Austria  
 after the Congress of Berlin, 1878.  
 Annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina to Austria,  
 1908.  
 Formation of the state of Albania to block the growth  
 of Serbia.  
 Result.

#### THE BALKAN STATES.

##### General References:

- Text-books as above.  
 Statesman's Year Book.  
 "National Geographic Magazine," 1915, articles on the  
 various Balkan States.  
 "Europe Since 1815," Charles D. Hazen.  
 "The Old World in the New," E. A. Ross.  
 "Political History of Europe Since 1814," Charles Seig-  
 nobos.  
 "The Balkans," W. M. Sloane.

##### A. Turkey in Europe.

- Its origin, capture of Constantinople, 1453.  
 Its original territory.  
 Its position in the nineteenth century.  
 "The sick man of Europe."  
 Reasons for its support by the western powers in the  
 Crimean War and the Russo-Turkish wars.

##### B. The Government.

- The Sultan, religious and political head of the govern-  
 ment.  
 The Parliament.  
 General character of Turkish rule over subject people.  
 The Bulgarian atrocities.  
 The Armenian atrocities.

##### C. Independent states which have been formed from the territory of Turkey in Europe.

1. Greece in 1829.  
 Its present government.  
 Its economic condition.  
 Its territorial ambitions.



Recent additions to Greek territory as a result of the Balkan wars.

Present conditions in Greece.

#### II. Roumania in 1878.

Roumanian government of people.

Special topic: Carmen Sylva.

#### III. Serbia in 1878.

King Peter and his people.

Attitude of Serbia towards Austria.

Serbia in the Balkan wars.

#### IV. Bulgaria in 1878.

Rivalry with Greece and Serbia.

Treaty of Bucharest.

### NATIONALISM AND IMPERIALISM.

#### General References:

"Medieval and Modern Times," J. H. Robinson.

"New Map of Europe," H. A. Gibbons.

"New Map of Africa," H. A. Gibbons.

"England and Germany," Schmitt.

#### A. Nationalism as a factor in the making of modern history.

The struggle for German unity.

The struggle for Italian unity.

Nationalist ambitions of the Balkan States.

Nationalist feeling in Poland and Finland.

#### B. Imperialism—a larger nationalism.

##### I. Definition of imperialism.

"The policy of adding distant territories for the purpose of controlling their products, getting trade with natives, investing money in the development of natural resources." (J. H. Robinson.)

##### II. Imperialism a cause of international disputes.

###### 1. In the Far East.

Japanese, Russian, German, and British interests in China and Korea.

###### 2. In Africa.

French and English rivalry in Egypt.

The Fashoda incident.

The race for Central Africa.

French and Italian rivalry in Tunis.

French and German rivalry in Morocco.

The Agadir incident.

###### 3. In the Near East.

Russian-Austrian rivalry in the Balkans.

Pan-Slavism vs. Pan-Germanism.

Russian and English rivalry in Persia.

German and English rivalry in Asia Minor.

Berlin to Bagdad railway project.

### FORCES TENDING TO INTERNATIONALISM.

Keynote: "Above all nations is humanity."—Goethe.

#### General References:

Text-books as above.

"Social Progress in Contemporary Europe," F. A. Ogg.

"History of Socialism," Kirkup.

#### A. Solidarity of the world owing to easy and rapid transportation and communication.

Steam railway and steam navigation.

Suez and Panama Canals.

Post, telephone, telegraph and cable.

#### B. Common movement towards democracy throughout the civilized world.

The present war from one point of view the last incident in the long struggle for the rights of man.

#### C. Common tendency toward industrialism.

The industrial revolution and the resulting development of urban life.

#### D. Moral and intellectual unity throughout the civilized world.

#### E. International organizations.

##### I. The Peace Movement.

First and second peace conferences.

Establishment of a permanent court of arbitration for the settlement of international disputes.

##### II. Socialism—an international movement.

Definition of Socialism.

Karl Marx and his teaching.

Socialism in France.

Socialists in the revolution of 1848.

Socialists in the Paris Commune.

Socialists in the Third Republic.

Socialism in England.

The Fabian Society.

Socialistic character of recent legislation.

The "war on poverty."

Socialism in the German Empire.

Beginnings under Marx and Lassalle.

Bismarck's attitude toward socialism.

Development of state socialism and municipal socialism.

The present social democratic party.

Socialism in Russia.

The social democrats.

The revolutionary socialists.

### EVENTS LEADING TO THE GREAT WAR.

#### Reference:

"Modern European History," Charles D. Hazen.

Relations between Serbia and Austria.

Murder of Archduke Francis Ferdinand.

The Austrian ultimatum and Serbia's reply.

Attitude of Germany.

Russian mobilization.

The Triple Alliance vs. the Triple Entente.

Violation of Belgian neutrality.

Entrance of England into the war.

### WHERE TO OBTAIN INFORMATION ON THE WAR.

Teachers interested in the relation of the war to the schools of the country can obtain aid and advice from:

The National Board for Historical Service, 1133 Woodward Building, Washington, D. C.

United States Bureau of Education, Division of Civic Education, Washington, D. C.

Committee on Public Information, Division of Educational Co-operation, 10 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C.

The Committee on Patriotism, through Education of the National Security League, 31 Pine Street, New York City.

Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, 2 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C.

National Committee of Patriotic and Defense Societies, Southern Building, Washington, D. C.

The World Peace Foundation, 40 Mt. Vernon Street, Boston, Mass.

American Association for International Conciliation, 407 W. 117th Street, New York City.

The American Society for Judicial Settlement of International Disputes, Baltimore, Md.

The Editor, THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE, Philadelphia.

## Notes from the Historical Field

The United States Bureau of Education has been using its influence to keep alive the interest in educational work in the present times of national crisis. An appeal has been made to religious organizations and to ministers, Sunday-school superintendents, and leaders of young people's societies urging them to help in preserving the national educational system. Similar appeals have been sent to the club women of the United States and also to labor unions.

Professor William F. Russell, who is known to the readers of *THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE* as the author of a study upon "The Early Teaching of History in Secondary Schools," has resigned his position in George Peabody College to accept an appointment as Dean of the College of Education at the State University of Iowa.

"Luther's Influence in Education" is the title of a contribution by Dr. R. B. Perry, president of Midland College, to the September number of "Education." Dr. Perry points out that Luther believed it to be the duty of the state to educate its citizens: that education should be universal; that attendance on the common schools should be compulsory; that education should be practical; that the curriculum should be broad and rich; and that better methods should be adopted in education.

The Committee on Thrift Education of the National Education Association has issued a pamphlet entitled, "Agricultural Preservation and Food Conciliation: A Study in Thrift." The subject of thrift is discussed under such headings as "The Patriotic Necessity of Thrift," "How Schools May Help Preserve Food Production," "Waste of Foods," "Thrift in the Home," "Food Storage and Preservation," "The Relation of Thrift and Food Problems to Schools, and Particularly to Courses in Domestic Economy and Industrial Arts."

The sixth annual Bulletin of Historical Literature issued by the (English) Historical Association covers the principal historical writings of the year 1916. The Bulletin is edited by Professor F. J. C. Hearnshaw. It is divided into nine headings, as follows: "Ancient History," "Early Medieval History, 300-1000," "Medieval History, 1000-1200," "Later Medieval History, 1200-1488," "The Sixteenth Century," "The Seventeenth Century," "The Eighteenth Century," and "The Nineteenth Century," and "General Works." The secretary of the Association is Miss M. B. Curran, 22 Russell Square, London, W. C.

The American Association for International Conciliation has issued as No. 114 of its publications "Documents Relating to the Entry of the United States Into the Great War." The pamphlet contains the President's address of April 2; the resolution of Congress of April 6; the proclamation of the President of the same date; Mayor Mitchell's proclamation of that date, and President Wilson's address to his fellow-countrymen of April 16.

Mr. Lewis B. Swift has extended and revised his paper entitled, "America's Debt to England: The Failure to Teach the Foundations of Liberty," which he read before the American Historical Association at Cincinnati, December 28, 1916, and it has been published in pamphlet form by the Kautz Stationery Company, of Indianapolis (ten cents).

Dr. Milton R. Gutsch contributes the leading article to the Texas History Teacher's Bulletin for May, 1917 (Volume 5, No. 3), entitled, "The Field of Instruction in Elementary College History." The paper is accompanied by a number of tables giving statistics concerning the preparatory work of students entering the University of Texas.

Based upon this experience, the writer concludes that one field of history should be offered for all entering students, and that this one field should be English history. Professor Barker continues his source readings in Texas history. An index to Volume 1 to 5 of the Bulletin is contained in this number.

Teachers in Colorado and Wisconsin who desire leave of absence to teach in other parts of the country in order to become acquainted with conditions elsewhere, may obtain permission to do so from the boards of education under the terms of recent acts passed by the Legislatures of those States. There is a considerable amount of exchange in the teaching force of colleges and universities, particularly in summer schools. Exchange professorships with foreign countries have also been arranged, and efforts have been made to provide for an exchange of teachers from different parts of the British Empire. The permission granted in Wisconsin and in Colorado is in accordance with the principles already established for the exchange of professorships. Great good could be accomplished not only for the individual teacher, but also for school systems if a broader exchange of the teaching profession were possible.

"An Outline for the Study of the History of Idaho, with Reading Lists and References" has been prepared by Professor H. L. Talkington, of the Lewiston State Normal School, and is issued in the "Idaho Bulletin of Education," Volume 2, No. 4. Professor Talkington divides the history of Idaho into sixteen chapters, in which he includes the era of exploration, routes to the west, the fur trading era, the missionary period, the mining era, immigration to the west, the geography of Idaho, early settlements and roads, political history of the Oregon country, political history of Idaho, Indian wars, public lands, educational systems, State educational institutions, other State institutions, and local history and civics. Each one of these topics is accompanied by an outline and brief bibliography and suggestions as to the method of handling the subject.

"The Battle Line of Democracy," an anthology prepared by the Committee on Public Information, Washington, D. C., which was mentioned in *THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE* for September as selling for 25 cents, has been changed in price to 15 cents. Requests for copies should be sent to the Committee on Public Information.

"The Public School System in Relation to the Coming Conflict for National Supremacy" is a pamphlet by V. S. Bryant published by Longmans, Green & Company, for the English Committee on the Neglect of Science. The work shows an analysis of the curriculum in the private and public schools of England. It expounds the role of science in the general scheme of education. An idea of the constructive policy of the author may be gained from the following quotation: "A new method must replace the old, which, without sacrificing the formation of moral fibre, will at the same time produce men of energy, men of decision and men of business. The classical system does not and cannot produce this type which is so absolutely and so immediately essential for the attainment of national supremacy in the future."

The proceedings of the Seventeenth Annual Session of the State Literary and Historical Association of North Carolina contain a number of interesting papers among which may be noted "The Sovereign State of North Carolina, 1787-1789" by W. W. Pierson, Jr.; "Suffrage in North Carolina," by W. S. Wilson; "History of Crimes and Punishments in North Carolina" by T. M. Pittman; and "North Carolina Bibliography 1916" by M. W. Leatherman.

The meeting of the Tufts College Teachers' Association on October 27 will have certain papers of interest to teachers of history and government. Dr. John S. Scully will speak on "Up To The Minute Teaching" at the morning session at Packard Hall, Tufts College. In the afternoon there will be a series of conferences including one on "Recent Changes in History" at which the changes in the various fields of history will be discussed by Harriet E. Tuell, Roy W. Hatch, George S. Pearson, Winthrop Tirrell and others. A luncheon will be served on the campus and tickets may be secured there.

Miss Blanche Leavitt, Teacher in the Rogers High School, Newport, R. I., since 1896, died on September 16. Miss Leavitt was not only a remarkably successful teacher of history but devoted much of her time to historical associations.

A New England Board for Historical Service, composed of a group of historians in New England, has been organized to co-operate with the National Board in Washington. The New England group has been devoting its attention to the giving of lectures and informal addresses on the historic facts underlying the war issues. A series of lectures was given at White Mountain hotels during the past summer by Prof. Arthur I. Andrews, of Tufts College, and Dr. Mason W. Tyler, of the University of Minnesota. The New England Board has organized a body of specialists in history, who have offered their services freely to any community which desires lectures upon the historic aspects of the war. The only stipulations are the guarantee of the lecturer's expenses and a respectable audience. Details concerning the topics of the lectures and the available lecturers can be obtained from the secretary, Prof. Arthur I. Andrews, Tufts College, Mass.

The National Security League (31 Pine Street, New York City) has published a series of pamphlets entitled "Patriotism Through Education." Thirteen of these pamphlets have come to hand. They are as follows: "Knowledge by the People the True Basis of National Security," by S. Stanwood Menken; "Getting Your Audience," by Rev. Dr. Sartell Prentice; "What Our Country Asks of Its Young Women," by Mrs. Percy V. Pennypacker; "Some Neglected Aspects of Public Speaking," by Prof. Solomon H. Clark; "The Ideals of Our War," by Prof. Robert McNutt McElroy; "Fourth of July Oration," by Hon. George W. Wickersham; "The Food Administration," by Frederic C. Woodward; "The Outlook for Democracy," by Dr. William H. Hobbs; "The German Tragedy," by Dr. Henry W. Farnham; "Democracy and World Politics," by Dr. Shailer Mathews; "Hurry Up, America!" by Pomeroy Burton; "The Navy and the War," by Hon. Franklin D. Roosevelt; "Suggestions for Speakers on the United States and the World War," by Prof. Richard T. Ely. The league has also published a Hand Book of the War for Public Speakers (25 cents), edited by Albert Bushnell Hart and Arthur O. Lovejoy.

The Wisconsin Loyalty Legion (228 First National Bank Building, Milwaukee, Wis.) has prepared a series of lectures to be given throughout the State. Among the topics listed for these lectures are: "Why We Are at War;" "Mobilization of a Nation;" "Feeding a World at War;"

"Caring for the Injured;" "Financing the War;" "Our Fighting Forces;" "Civilian Care for Fighters;" and "Autocracy Versus Democracy."

"The Trade of the Delaware District Before the Revolution," by Mary Alice Hanna, appears as No. 4, Volume 2, of the Smith College Studies in History. The study is divided into three parts: The Economic Conditions in the Delaware District Before 1763; British Trade and Revenue Legislation, 1763-1773; and the Effect of British Legislation. The English legislation, as pointed out, injured the trade of the district because that trade depended upon circuitous routes which were practically forbidden by the "enumerated" policy. A resort was had to illegal methods on a larger scale than before the restriction legislation was passed. The authority of the vice-admiralty courts and custom houses of the district was completely nullified and "such conditions of trade existed as to make the period for the individual traders more prosperous than any previous one."

## Comments on History Teaching in Colleges

Editor THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE:

DEAR SIR: In the valuable symposium on the elementary college course in history, published in the MAGAZINE for April, is one statement that attracts my attention particularly.

On page 112, discussing the field of such a course, Professor Show says, "Every man is fully persuaded in his own eyes that the thing which he is doing is the best thing to do." That proposition is probably almost absolutely true. I assume that by "best" Professor Show means, and expects the "every man" to mean, that which is really the most desirable thing to do, from the standpoint of the ideal history teacher. That being understood, the history department at Louisiana State University, as far as the field of the elementary course is concerned, is *not* doing what it believes to be the best.

Both the head of the department, Dr. Walter L. Fleming, and myself, consider that for many reasons, the introductory course in history should be a course in general history. For many years that is what has been offered the freshman, without very satisfactory results. We have found that the attitude of the average freshman is that since such a course covers much the same ground that two of his high school courses did, he has not much to gain from it, and is simply bound to take it, because the faculty, in its pigheaded arbitrariness, has so decreed.

About two years ago, Professor Fleming inaugurated an experiment. The old freshman course, "History 1-2," was re-arranged somewhat. History 1-2, "The Essentials of History," was offered as before, but for those students who could give presumptive evidence that they could profit by such a course, "History 1a-2a" was offered. This is simply a freshman course, in which the history of England is the narrative thread, to which are attached the "general" ramifications of European history. In the 1916-1917 session, Professor Fleming and I each had a section of 1-2 and of 1a-2a. At the midyear examinations I found that in 1-2, out of a section of twenty-seven students, eighteen, or only 66% per cent., passed. In the section of 1a-2a, thirty out of thirty-two, or 93 per cent. +, passed. This was the larger section, and the one in which I was *less* interested.

We explain that by the fact that the novelty of the course is attractive, because no English history is offered in the high schools of this State. Consequently, for the 1917-18 session only the course based on England will be offered to all freshmen.

Here, then, are two men who believe that the *best* thing to do is to give the freshmen a course in general history, yet are actually *giving* a course in English history; that is, doing the practical thing.

MILLEDGE, L. BONHAM, JR.,  
Professor of History and Political Science,  
Louisiana State University.

#### CONCLUSIONS FROM STUDY OF 2250 DARTMOUTH UNDERGRADUATES' HISTORY COURSES IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

For the four classes, 1915, 1916, 1917, 1918, there were taken from the admission records the courses for which about 1,500 students received entrance credit in history for work done in high school. Of these 1,500 students, 77 per cent. had received credit for courses in ancient history; 12 per cent. for medieval and modern European; 24 per cent. for English history; 48 per cent. for American history. The percentage receiving credit for at least two courses in history was 61 per cent. Only 13 per cent. appeared to receive credit for at least three courses.

For the last two classes entering (1919, 1920), 750 blanks were filled out by freshmen themselves, showing what courses they had taken in history in high school (or preparatory school)—whether they had received credit for them on entering college or not. Of those 750 freshmen, 85 per cent. had taken ancient history; 23 per cent. medieval and modern European; 35 per cent. English history; 62 per cent. American history. At least two courses in history had been taken by 71 per cent.; at least three courses by 28 per cent.

Putting together the number in four earlier classes who received entrance credit for courses in history, and the number in last two classes who report having taken courses, we find that out of 2,250 undergraduates at Dartmouth in the last six classes (1915-1920), the total percentage who either received entrance credit, or studied the respective courses in high school, was as follows: Ancient history, 80 per cent.; European, 16 per cent.; English, 28 per cent.; American, 53 per cent. Of the total of 2,250, 64 per cent. either presented or had taken at least two courses; and 18 per cent. presented or had taken at least three courses.

To sum up:

1. The vast majority take and receive credit for ancient history (77 to 85 per cent.).
2. A large majority take American history in high school, and about half receive entrance credit for it (62 to about 48 per cent.).
3. Of those taking American history in high school, 77 per cent. have it in the last year.
4. Ninety-seven per cent. have had American history in either grammar or high school.
5. The per cent. either studying or receiving credit for European history is surprisingly small, only 16 per cent., as compared with 28 per cent. for English history.

It should perhaps be added that these figures do not represent New England schools so largely as would be generally presupposed, but rather a fairly national distribution. For the last year, 1916-1917, 48 per cent. of Dartmouth students were from outside New England.

It appears fairly clear that in a college where the percentage taking ancient and American history is so large,

and the percentage taking European in the high school is so small, the course offered to freshmen in college would naturally be in European history, if regard be had to the largest gap in the historical knowledge of an entering class.

HERBERT DARLING FOSTER.

#### NEW COURSE OF STUDY IN HISTORY FOR THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS OF PHILADELPHIA.

A new course of study in history for the entire eight grades was put into force in Philadelphia last month. The course was prepared under the direction of Superintendent John P. Garber by a committee composed of District Superintendents, principals of schools and teachers in the high schools. The General Chairman of the Committee was Holman White. The committee was divided into four subcommittees, as follows: History for Grades 7 and 8—Nina L. Crawford, Chairman; for Grades 5 and 6—Dr. Charles A. Coulomb, Chairman; for grades 1, 2, 3 and 4—Louise F. Perring, Chairman; Committee on Methods and Suggestive Lessons—Dr. Albert L. Rowland, Chairman.

The remaining members of the committee were: Horace Hoagland, Dr. Belle F. Clark, William McLaughlin, Charles Buckley, Lillian DuBois, Robert MacMillan, John L. Shroy, Louise H. Haeseler, Helen K. Yerkes, Bertha F. Cox, Margaret L. Gill, Robert C. String, Frances Young, J. Thornton Emrey, Thomas Groetzinger, William Lowry, Edwin Montanye, Harriet Keller.

The course, as will be seen from the summary given below, follows in some respects the recommendations of the Committee of Eight. The instruction runs through three cycles, in each of which the pupil starts with stories of early life, and comes down to American history. Cycle one includes grades one and two, and takes up stories of Indian life and American holidays and festivals; cycle two includes grades three, four and five, beginning with hero stories of legend and history, stories of great explorers, stories of local history and an informal survey of American history through biography. The third cycle includes grades six to eight, beginning with a general account of ancient and medieval life and the age of discovery. This is followed by the history of America down to 1815, and in the eighth grade the century from 1815 to 1917 is treated.

#### Summary of the Course of Study in History.

##### GRADES ONE AND TWO.

Oral instruction, dramatization.

##### Grades I and II.

Stories of Indian life.

Appreciation of public holidays and festivals.—Columbus Day; Penn Day; Thanksgiving Day; Lincoln's Birthday; Washington's Birthday; Arbor Day; May Day; Memorial Day; Flag Day (Independence Day).

##### GRADE THREE.

Oral instruction, dramatization, supplementary reading.

##### Grade 3A—Fall Term.

Stories of heroes of legend and history.—Joseph; Moses; David; Ulysses; Alexander; Horatius; Cincinnatus; Siegfried; Arthur; Roland.

Appreciation of public holidays and festivals.

##### Grade 3B—Fall Term.

Stories of heroes of legend and history.—Siegfried; Arthur; Roland; Alfred the Great; Richard the Lion Hearted; Robert Bruce; William Tell; Joan of Arc; Peter the Great; Florence Nightingale.

Appreciation of public holidays.

## GRADE FOUR.

Oral instruction and supplementary reading.

## Grade 4A.

Stories of great explorers.—Lief Ericsson; Christopher Columbus; Sir Walter Raleigh; Samuel Champlain; Henry Hudson.

Settlers in the South.—John Smith; the settlers and the Indians.

Settlers in New England.—Miles Standish; the settlers and the Indians.

George Washington.

Benjamin Franklin.

## Grade 4B.

Stories from local history.—Pennsylvania's neighbors, John Printz and Peter Stuyvesant; William Penn; the settlers and the Indians; distinguished Pennsylvanians, John Bartram, Francis Daniel Pastorius, Benjamin West, Benjamin Rush; places of historical interest, Penn's House, Betsy Ross House, Christ Church, Independence Hall; interesting historical places in the school neighborhood.

## GRADE FIVE.

Informal survey of American history through the lives of the nation's leading heroes. Oral instruction supplemented by text-book.

## Grade 5A.

Men who helped to make our country independent.—Franklin; Adams; Henry; Philadelphia Tea Party; Washington; Jefferson; Paul Jones; Lafayette; George Rogers Clark; Robert Morris; Anthony Wayne; John Barry; Peter Muhlenberg.

Men who helped to make our country strong.—Hamilton; Decatur; Perry; Stephen Girard.

Men who helped to make our country larger.—Daniel Boone; Lewis and Clark; Davy Crockett; John C. Fremont.

## Grade 5B.

Great inventors and great achievements.—Eli Whitney; Robert Fulton; Governor Clinton and the Erie Canal; the first train; Cyrus McCormick; Samuel F. B. Morse; Alexander Graham Bell; Thomas A. Edison.

Men and women who helped to rid our country of slavery.—Lucretia Mott; Harriet Beecher Stowe; Abraham Lincoln; Ulysses S. Grant; Jay Cooke.

A Southern leader.—Robert E. Lee.

Helpful men and women who belong to recent times.—William McKinley; Grover Cleveland; Clara Barton; Frances Willard.

## GRADE SIX.

Impressions of ancient and medieval life.

Oral instruction supplemented by text-book.

## Grade 6A.

The Greeks.—Why we remember them; the Greeks as builders and artists; spread of Greek culture.

The Romans.—The beginnings of Rome; Roman conquest of Italy; Roman conquest of the Mediterranean lands; Roman conquest in the West; the Roman Empire; Rome and Christianity.

The Germanic peoples.—The German tribes; conversion of the Germans to Christianity; overthrow of the Roman Empire in the West; German conquest of Britain; King Alfred the Great; Norman conquest of England; Norman kings forced to acknowledge the rights of the people.

Life in Europe during the Middle Ages.—Social life; religious life; education.

## Grade 6B.

The Crusades.—Pilgrimages; the crusades; the Renaissance.

The discovery of the western world.—Beginnings of discovery; Columbus; John Cabot; Vasco de Gama; Balboa; Magellan; Cartier; Cortes; Pizarro; Ponce de Leon; De Soto; Coronado.

European ambitions and the new world.—Spain; France; England; Holland.

## GRADE SEVEN.

Study of American history, 1607 to 1815.

Oral instruction, text-book, collateral reading.

## Grade 7A.

Seventeenth century conditions in England and America.—North America, geographical conditions; conditions in England leading to emigration.

English settlements in America.—The first English settlement; settlement of New England; founding of Maryland; later Southern colonies; Pennsylvania.

Colonial rivalries.—Early French settlements; Spanish settlements; the Dutch in the Hudson Valley; conflicting claims of rival powers.

Struggle for colonial empire between England and France.—Holland and England against France; early wars between England and France; French and Indian War.

Life in the colonies.

## Grade 7B.

From colonies to nation.—Steps toward union; conditions and events leading to the American Revolution; beginnings of the Revolutionary War; period of difficulty; the French alliance; war on the seas; conclusion of the war.

Organization of the United States.—The new republic; the formation of the Constitution; the new government.

The new republic and wars in Europe.—Revolution in France; European wars and American interests; Jeffersonian democracy in power; new wars in Europe and their consequences to America.

## GRADE EIGHT.

Study of history of the United States, 1815 to present, current events.

Oral instruction, text-books, collateral reading.

## Grade 8A.

Industrial and social development.—Industrial revolution in England and America; emigration to the West; the Missouri Compromise.

New neighbors and new problems.—The Monroe Doctrine; politics from 1824 to 1832; our neighbors; war with Mexico.

Territorial expansion and the slavery question.—Slavery in the new territory; industrial and social development of the North; slavery in the middle West.

Crisis of the Republic.—The danger of disunion; comparative study of the Union and the Confederacy; the first years of the war; the turning of the tide; overthrow of the Confederacy.

## Grade 8B.

Peace and its problems.—Conditions in the country at the close of the Civil War; reconstruction; troubles in the South.

The new union and the larger Europe.—Neighbors and rivals; national reorganization; the Spanish-American War; expansion and its problems; recent economic and political development.

## BOOK REVIEWS

EDITED BY PROFESSOR WAYLAND J. CHASE,  
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

GRIFFIS, WILLIAM ELLIOTT. *The Mikado: Institution and Person. A Study of the Internal Forces of Japan.* Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1915. Pp. viii, 346. \$1.50.

Those who have read "The Religions of Japan" and "The Mikado's Empire," by the same author, will have a fairly good idea of the general character of this book. Dr. Griffis has been a student of Japanese history for over forty-five years, and was long engaged in Japan in educational work. In this connection he made many acquaintances among the more thoughtful Japanese, and was fortunate in enjoying numerous audiences with the great Mikado Mutsuhito who died in 1912. It is especially the career of this personage that he discusses, but much is said of the earlier conditions which this Mikado had to overcome before he acquired the power to which he eventually arrived. The peculiar influences of Chinese culture, the qualities of Shintoism—so strange to the Western mind—and the dual government of Mikado and Shogun are in turn discussed. Apart from these chapters which present such a foreign atmosphere to Occidentals, are some concluding chapters which have an immediate bearing upon the Great War. According to Dr. Griffis, the rise of Japan, leading to the defeat of Russia, sounded the signal for the Teutonic attack. "In a large sense of the word, Mikadoism was the force that disturbed 'the balance of power' in Europe, tumbled the edifices of British and Russian, German and French statecraft into ruin, and compelled world views." The disclosure of Russia's weakness, the sudden increase in the armies of Germany and France, and then the Great War, all followed as a matter of course.

HENRY L. CANNON.

Stanford University.

KNOWLTON, DANIEL C., AND HOWE, SAMUEL B. *Essentials in Modern European History.* New York: Longmans, Greene & Co., 1917. Pp. 437. \$1.50.

This is a companion volume to Howe's "Essentials in Early European History" (same publishers, 1912). The present volume follows the excellent outlines by Knowlton and Wolfson, which were published a few years ago in *THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE*.

It has often been said by teachers that one reason for unsatisfactory text-books was that they were usually written by college or university men who had never had high school teaching experience, and were therefore not familiar with the problems of the teachers in the secondary schools. This objection cannot be raised against this book, as both of the authors are high school teachers.

The book begins with a survey of conditions in Europe in the eighteenth century. One chapter is given to each of the following subjects: (1) "Social and Political Conditions;" (2) "Industrial and Commercial Conditions;" (3) "Rival Colonial and Commercial Powers and the Commercial Wars of the Eighteenth Century." Then follows the "French Revolution" and the "Napoleonic Periods," and an excellent chapter on the "Industrial Revolution." Some 218 pages are given to the period before 1815, including the "Industrial Revolution," and only some 187 pages to the period since 1815. This division hardly bears out the statement in the preface: "The march of events, however, has been so rapid that correspondingly more space has been devoted to contemporary history than to the earlier epochs." Although the book has just been published, the story really

stops with 1914. There is no attempt to explain adequately the causes of the Great War or to narrate the events of the last three years, although incidental reference is made at times to the probable effects of the war of 1914.

The narrative is interesting and usually clear. One sentence at least may be mentioned as an exception to this rule. Speaking of the change in the British colonial policy after the Seven Years' War (p. 76), the authors say: "When the great struggle was over the situation seemed to demand that the American colonies should not only repay a part of the expenditure of the millions of pounds sterling which had been spent in establishing a British dominion in America, but that they should help bear the burden of the new plans of defense which experience had shown to be so necessary." The reviewer questions the accuracy of the first part of the statement so far as any intention on the part of Great Britain was concerned, and believes that the student would gain an erroneous impression from the sentence as to what Great Britain proposed to do with the money raised from the colonies.

There are some forty-two maps and plans, some fifteen of which are colored. The illustrations are good. The teaching helps are excellent. The references at the close of each chapter are to a few good books which should be in every high school library, and are grouped under topics for collateral reading. Source studies and suggestions for map work accompany the several chapters.

WILSON P. SHORTRIDGE.

University of Minnesota.

BURGESS, JOHN W. *The Administration of President Hayes.* New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1916. Pp. xi, 154. \$1.00.

This little volume comprises the Larwill lectures, at Kenyon College, for 1915. The first lecture reviews the political, economic and social situation in the nation in 1876; the second describes the election of 1876, the disputed count and the inauguration; the third discusses the southern and the financial policies of Hayes; and the final one gives an account of "the re-establishment of the government upon its constitutional foundations," which is to say, the contests with the Democrats over the riders upon the appropriation bills and with the Republican leaders over civil service reform. The author has presented his views with the clarity and felicity which distinguish all his writings. Nowhere, for instance, is there a clearer statement in brief compass of the Republican contention that the certificates of the Republican electors from the disputed states in 1876-1877 were the only legal certificates. At the same time the reader finds frequent illustrations of that proneness to dogmatic assertion which is also characteristic. For example, it is asserted that "the claimed legislature . . . and . . . claimed governor [the McEnery government of Louisiana] had never had any legal existence" (p. 51); "no President or Vice-President had ever had a more complete title legally to his office than did Mr. Hayes and Mr. Wheeler" (p. 55), and that "any grounds of complaint in Florida, Louisiana, and South Carolina against the Republicans . . . were entirely over-balanced by those against the Democrats" (p. 55).

While he has added nothing to what even the casual student has known of the facts of the period, Doctor Burgess has probably succeeded in his main purpose, which was to give to the world a better appreciation of the high character and the sound public services of President Hayes. But even the most sincere admirers of that president are likely to question the assertion that he was "called by more than human appointment to lead the Republican party" (p. 36),

and that the panic of 1893 was caused by the failure of the public to heed the advice of Hayes in 1878 (p. 100). It seems very like an over-statement to say that Hayes's successful opposition to the Democratic efforts to place riders on the appropriation bills was, as a defense of the constitutional against the "parliamentary" system, alone enough to render his administration "immortal" (p. 124), or to insist that he was the finest example of American manhood that ever occupied the White House (p. 150).

It hardly seems correct, in view of the theory adopted by Congress itself and the opinion of the Supreme Court which sustained this theory, to say that Congress "created new States in the South with the boundaries of the old antebellum States" (p. 4). A minor error is the statement that there were two certificates, instead of three, before Congress from Florida in the disputed election case (p. 47). A more serious one is the bald assertion that neither Hayes nor his friends made any agreement with Southerners for the withdrawal of the Federal troops from Louisiana and South Carolina in return for support of the decisions of the electoral commission (p. 88), for it flatly ignores the evidence produced by Dr. P. L. Haworth ("The Disputed Presidential Election of 1876," pp. 268-272), as well as the statement of a participant, Henry Watterson ("Century Magazine," May, 1913, p. 19).

The typographical work is excellent, and there is a good index.

CHARLES W. RAMSDELL.

The University of Texas.

HAYES, CARLTON J. H. *A Political and Social History of Modern Europe*. In two volumes. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1916. Vol. I, pp. xxvi, 597. \$2.00. Vol. II, pp. ix, 767. \$2.25.

These large volumes were written primarily as a textbook for college and university students. As such they have already been very favorably received. Their most distinctive feature is the very large amount of space devoted to the social and economic side of history. Intellectual development and scientific progress also receive very full treatment. Along these lines Dr. Hayes has done a real service to teachers of history by gathering together much material not easily found elsewhere. But to make room for this material he has compressed the political history into brief space, and treated the religious history of the Reformation period with very great brevity. In these respects the book leaves the student with somewhat scanty or hazy information about some very important matters. There is, however, no great lack of other books in which the political history can be found.

Dr. Hayes's books will prove very convenient for high school teachers. But it is likely that very many high school pupils would find the language too difficult and the material rather heavy. Hence the books are not suitable for general assignment to students in high schools.

CLARENCE PERKINS.

Ohio State University.

MATHEWS, JOHN MABBY. *Principles of American State Administration*. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1917. Pp. xiv, 533. \$2.50.

"The development of the State administrative organization has for a long time past been largely unconscious, and consequently haphazard. Endless incongruities and absurdities were the natural result. Where improvements in organization occurred they were usually accidental, partial and sporadic. The present organization of State administration contains little evidence of unified design or sys-

tematic planning. It consists of a complicated mass of separate and disjointed authorities, operating with little reference to each other or to any central control. This situation is due in part to the desire of political 'experts' to keep the government complicated so as to weaken popular control, and, in part, to general popular ignorance of the importance of efficient administration. There are, however, signs of an awakening from this condition of complacent inertia."

This book is a painstaking and systematic effort to aid in correcting these evils, and will doubtless be found more helpful to the student of State administration than any other single volume now in print. It is presented in four parts; an introduction, the organization of the administration, the functions of the administration, and some conclusions. Many will not be willing to follow the author in his two-fold classification of elementary functions of the State, but this is a matter of pure theory. Most students will follow him in all the practical reforms he proposes, such as the short ballot, the single-chambered State legislature, and the like. It is to be hoped that the appearance of such books as this will lead the writers of text-books for schools to give more and more attention to State government which has thus far been so completely neglected by them. So much so that few realize that most of our public welfare is dependent on the State government which is, in such a State as New York, still all that the author in the above paragraph has described. It is sufficient to say that it consists of some 170 but slightly related and almost irresponsible organs of government.

EDGAR DAWSON.

Hunter College of the City of New York.

PALMER, FREDERICK. *My Second Year of the War*. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co., 1917. Pp. 404. \$1.50.

Mr. Palmer was the only accredited American war correspondent with the British armies in France during 1916, and had the best opportunities to see the battles of the Somme. He has written an excellent account of the great offensive with all its grimness. To anyone who wishes to know the details of how these tremendous attacks are prepared for and carried out, this book will be intensely interesting. The author's style is a bit sketchy, but it is readable and interesting. Very unfortunately, there is not a single map in the whole book with which to locate the great number of places referred to in the text. This is a serious omission. But in spite of this the book is well worthy of attention by the general reader.

CLARENCE PERKINS.

Ohio State University.

ROBINSON, CHALFONT. *Continental Europe, 1270 to 1598*. Revised and adapted from the French of P. Bondonio and Ch. Dufayard. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1916. Pp. xv, 489. \$2.00.

This book is, as the author-translator says in the preface, "mainly a free translation of *L'histoire de l'Europe et en particulier de la France de 1270 à 1610*, par P. Bondonio, Agrégé d'histoire, Professeur au lycée Buffon, et Ch. Dufayard, Docteur ès lettres, Professeur au lycée Henry IV." Some chapters of the original work have been omitted in the translation and some additions or expansions have been made to other chapters.

In the form as published here the book is particularly full on the history of France during the period of three centuries from the close of the thirteenth to the close of the sixteenth centuries. "The justification . . . for thus emphasizing France," says the preface, "rests not so much



upon her relative importance from 1800 to 1860, as upon the exceptional development of the French Monarchy and the definite form given during that time to her political institutions."

While intended for the use of college classes, the book would be valuable for reference in the high school history library. In addition to use for reference in European history classes, Chapter XVII on "Great Inventions and Discoveries" and Chapter XVIII on "The Conquest of the New World" would be valuable for classes in American colonial history. The work would not be too difficult for occasional reading by high school students.

WILSON PORTER SHORTEIDGE.

University of Minnesota.

#### CURRENT PERIODICAL ARTICLES ON THE TEACHING OF HISTORY.

LISTED BY W. L. HALL, OF THE NEW YORK STATE LIBRARY.

Gutsch, Milton R. "The Field of Instruction in Elementary College History." *Texas History Teachers' Bulletin*, V (May 15, 1917), 53-61.

Hobson, Elsie Garland. "Co-operation between Ancient History and English." *"School Review," XXV* (September, 1917), 480-487.

Hockett, Homer C. "The Duty of History Teachers During the War." *Ohio State University Bulletin*, XXI (March, 1917). *Ohio History Teachers' Journal*. Bulletin No. 5, 155-157.

J[ameson], J. F[ranklin]. "Historical Scholars in Wartime." *"American Historical Review," XXII* (July, 1917), 831-835.

Knight, M. M. "World Vision." One reason why our college students do not have it. *"School and Society," VI* (September 8, 1917), 285-288.

McIntire, Ruth E. "Oral History for the Middle Grades." "Normal Instructor and Primary Plans," *XXVI* (September, 1917), 35-36, 70.

Putney, Walter K. "Ordinary Folk who Made Extraordinary History." *"Popular Educator," XXXV* (September, 1917), 7.

Schlesinger, A. M. "History Teaching and Geography." *Ohio State University Bulletin*, XXI (March, 1917). *Ohio History Teachers' Journal*. Bulletin No. 5, 175-178.

Schlesinger, A. M. "How Can Local History be Taught?" *Ohio State University Bulletin*, XXI (March, 1917). *Ohio History Teachers' Journal*. Bulletin No. 5, 166-167.

Secondary Schools Association. Annual report and conference. "Education" (London), *XXX* (August 10, 1917), 50-51.

Townsend, A. J. "Interscholastic Debating in Ohio and Its Relation to American History and Civics." *Ohio State University Bulletin*, XXI (March, 1917). *Ohio History Teacher's Journal*. Bulletin No. 5, 168-174.

"United States and the Great War." *Ohio State University Bulletin*, XXI (March, 1917). *Ohio History Teacher's Journal*. Bulletin No. 5, 181-182.

#### BOOKS ON HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT PUBLISHED IN THE UNITED STATES FROM JULY 28 TO AUGUST 25, 1917.

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH.D.

##### American History.

Brooke, George, 3d. *With the First [Philadelphia] City Troop on the Mexican border.* Phila.: Winston. 166 pp. \$3.00, net.

Dunn, William E. *Spanish and French rivalry in the Gulf region of the United States, 1678-1702.* Austin, Tex.: Univ. of Texas. 238 pp. (10 pp. bibls.).

Fiske, Frank. *The training of the Sioux.* [History of the

Sioux nation.] Bismarck, N. D. [The Author]. 375 pp. \$3.00.

German-American Historical Soc. of Illinois. *Jahrbuch der deutsch-Amerikanischen historischen Gesellschaft von Illinois; Jahrgang, 1916* (vol. 16). Chicago: Univ. of Chicago. 398 pp. \$3.00.

Hammond, Otis G. *The Mason title and its relation to New Hampshire and Massachusetts.* Worcester, Mass.: Amer. Antiq. Soc. 21 pp. 50 cents.

Jericho, Vt., Historical Committee. *The history of Jericho, Vermont.* Burlington, Vt.: Free Press Print. 665 pp. \$7.00.

Kinnicutt, Lincoln N. *Historical notes relating to the second settlement of Worcester.* Worcester, Mass.: Amer. Antiq. Soc. 19 pp. 50 cents.

Lamb, George H., editor. *The unwritten history of Braddock's Field, Pennsylvania.* Braddock, Pa. [The editor]. 336 pp. \$1.50.

Lenoir, William B. *History of Sweetwater Valley.* Sweetwater, Tenn. [The author]. 414 pp. \$4.50.

Meyer, Balthasar H., editor. *History of transportation in the United States before 1860.* Wash., D. C.: Carnegie Inst. 678 pp. (26¼ pp. bibls.). \$6.50.

Peeke, Hewson L. *Americana ebrietas . . . and the laws and customs relating thereto.* N. Y.: [L. M. Thompson, 29 Broadway, agts.] 154 pp. \$15.00.

Smith, Capt. E. Kirby. *To Mexico with Scott.* [Author's letters to his wife.] Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard Univ. 225 pp. \$1.25, net.

##### Ancient History.

Seager, R. B. *The cemetery of Porphyrios, Crete.* Phila.: U. of Pa. Museum. 30 pp. \$5.00.

##### English History.

Dixon, William M. *The British navy at war.* Boston: Houghton, Mifflin. 93 pp. 75 cents, net.

E., A. *The national being; some thoughts on an Irish polity.* N. Y.: Macmillan. 176 pp. \$1.35, net.

Fortescue, John W. *A history of the British army.* Vol. 8, 1811-1812. N. Y.: Macmillan. 687 pp. \$12.00, net.

Maps and plans illustrating Fortescue's *History of the British army.* Vol. 8. N. Y.: Macmillan. \$12.00, net.

Hammond, John L. L., and Hammond, Barbara B. *The town laborer, 1760-1832.* N. Y.: Longmans. 346 pp. \$3.50, net.

Sanford, John L. *Introduction to English history.* [Phila.: John Wanamaker, agts.] 40 pp. 30 cents.

Turrill, J., editor. *Pages of Britain's story, A. D. 597-1898, from her historians and chroniclers.* N. Y.: Oxford Univ. 325 pp. \$1.00, net.

##### European History.

Jamison, E. M., and others. *Italy, medieval and modern.* N. Y.: Oxford Univ. 564 pp. (7¼ pp. bibls.). \$2.90, net.

Marcosson, Isaac F. *The rebirth of Russia.* N. Y.: John Lane. 208 pp. \$1.25, net.

##### The Great War.

Butler, N. M. *A world in ferment.* N. Y.: Scribner. 254 pp. \$1.25, net.

Carnovale, Luigi. *Why Italy entered the Great War.* [Text in both English and Italian.] Chicago: Italian-American Pub. Co., Room 930, Boulevard Bldg. 673 pp. \$2.50.

Cholmondeley, Alice. *Christine.* N. Y.: Macmillan. 250 pp. \$1.25, net.

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## CONTENTS

National Board for Historical Service	- - - -	289
Suggestions for Secondary School History:		
I. The Crisis of Hellenism, by Prof. W. S. Ferguson	- -	290
II. Points for Emphasis in the Tudor Period, by Prof. A. L. Cross	-	291
III. American Revolution and the British Empire, by Prof. E. B. Greene	- - - -	292
IV. Historic Role of the Slavs, by Prof. R. J. Kerner	- -	294
Latin American History in High Schools, by Laura F. Ullrick		296
Progress Within the Subject in High School History, by Prof. R. M. Tryon	- - - -	297
Testing Results in History Teaching, by Frances M. Morehouse		301
A Method of Teaching Practical Civics, by Principal E. E. Patton		305
Learning History by Doing, by Helen E. Purcell	- -	306
College Entrance Examination Board's Questions in History, 1917	- - - -	308
List of History Teachers' Associations, 307; Publications of the Committee on Public Information, 314; the War and the Schools, 315; Military Training in the Schools, 316; Notes from the Historical Field, 317; Periodical Literature, by Dr. G. B. Richards, 318; Book Reviews, edited by Prof. W. J. Chase, 319; Current Articles on the Teaching of History, listed by W. L. Hall, 321; Recent Historical Publications, listed by Dr. C. A. Coulomb, 321.		

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## National Board for Historical Service

It is now possible to make a brief statement of the work of the National Board for Historical Service. Formed on April 29, 1917. The Board is composed of James T. Shotwell, Chairman, Charles H. Hull, Vice-Chairman, Waldo G. Leland, Secretary-Treasurer, Victor S. Clark, Robert D. W. Connor, Carl Russell Fish, Guy S. Ford, Evarts B. Greene, Charles D. Hazen, Gaillard Hunt, Henry Johnson, and Frederick J. Turner. In addition to the members of the Board, the following historical scholars have assisted the Board in Washington: Messrs. E. E. Brown, E. S. Corwin, C. E. Gould, D. C. Munro, W. Notestein, C. O. Paullin, F. L. Paxson, J. G. Randall, and L. F. Stock, and Misses Louise F. Brown, F. G. Davenport, Harriet Dilla and Elizabeth Donnan. Many persons in other parts of the country have co-operated with the Board.

The Board has carried on an extensive correspondence throughout the country, seeking by this means to direct historical activity into lines of national service. It has furnished advice concerning research work, university courses, public lectures, newspaper and magazine articles, the collection and filing of records of the present war, and other topics. It has had prepared bibliographies of the war such as those which were published in *THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE* for June, 1917, and that which will shortly be issued by the Committee on Public Information.

Active co-operation has been maintained between the Board and the Committee on Public Information. The Board has aided the Committee by making historical researches and by gathering material suitable for publication by the Committee. Dr. W. G. Leland has prepared a pamphlet on the collecting of material respecting the war and its treatment by libraries and historical societies.

Early in its work the Board undertook joint work with the United States Bureau of Education, which resulted in the decision by the Bureau to publish a pamphlet of suggestions to history teachers. This plan was expanded further to include a series of papers to appear in *THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE* from September 1917 to June 1918. The educational work was placed in the hands of four committees, each of which has considered what reorganization of historical material should be made in the usual high school subjects of Ancient, European, English and American history. The general chairman of the educational workers is Professor E. B. Greene, of the University of Illinois. The committees are composed as follows: Ancient History: R. V. D.

Magoffin, chairman, J. H. Breasted, S. P. R. Chadwick, W. S. Davis, W. S. Ferguson, A. T. Olmstead, W. L. Westermann; Medieval and Modern European History: D. C. Munro, chairman, F. M. Anderson, A. I. Andrews, S. B. Harding, D. C. Knowlton, Margaret McGill; English History: A. L. Cross, chairman, Wayland J. Chase, Edward P. Cheyney, Blanche E. Hazard, L. M. Larson, Wallace Notestein; American History: E. B. Greene, chairman, W. L. Fleming, R. A. Maurer, F. L. Paxson, T. S. Smith, James Sullivan, E. M. Violette.

The Board has encouraged the establishment of prizes for distribution among teachers in public high and elementary schools, and by the public spirit of donors it has announced competitions in fourteen states. The prizes are offered for the best essay, primarily historical in character on the subject, "Why the United States is at War." In each state, provision has been made for a first prize for high school teachers of \$75, and other prizes of \$30, \$20, \$15 and \$10; and for a first prize of \$75 for elementary school teachers and additional prizes of \$25 and \$10 (five of the latter). Further information concerning the competitions can be obtained from the Secretary of the Board, Mr. W. G. Leland, 1188 Woodward Building, Washington, D. C.

Other activities of the Board have included the preparation by Prof. S. B. Harding, of a syllabus for lectures and reading courses on the causes of the war; the reprinting of articles bearing on the war; the supplying of historical material on the war to magazines; and arrangements for issuing sample copies of *THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE* and for trial four-months' subscriptions at reduced rates.

The work of the Board has been carried on solely by the voluntary co-operation of the historical scholars concerned. The Board has paid no salaries, and the members not habitually residing in Washington have paid their own expenses while staying there. The spirit of service among historians is well shown by their willingness to share in the work of the Board not only in Washington but throughout the country.

By encouraging a scientific attitude toward the questions involved in the war; by directing teachers to trustworthy sources of information; by pointing out how history courses should be reconstructed in the light of the war; by furnishing historical data to public officials, by furthering popular but accurate statements on the causes of the war—by these activities the creation of the Board has been fully justified.

# Timely Suggestions for Secondary School History

PREPARED UNDER THE DIRECTION OF FOUR COMMITTEES OF HISTORIANS IN CO-OPERATION WITH  
THE NATIONAL BOARD FOR HISTORICAL SERVICE.

## I. The Crisis of Hellenism

BY PROFESSOR WILLIAM S. FERGUSON, HARVARD UNIVERSITY.

"Among all political sins, the sin of feebleness is the most contemptible; it is the political sin against the Holy Ghost."—Treitschke, "Politik," I, 3.

The decisive factor in the development of the Hellenistic Age, indeed, the decisive factor in the development of antiquity generally, was the establishment of the Roman dominion in the world. It was because of the events that occurred before and after 200 B. C.—because of the failure of the states then menaced by the power and ambition of Rome to come together in an "encircling" alliance—that the ancient world experienced what would have been the fate of the modern world had Germany won the present war—subjection to the irresistible will of a single people.

The states that came in question were Carthage, Syracuse, the Achaean League, the Aetolian League, Rhodes, the kingdoms of Macedon, Pergamum, Syria, and Egypt, and a considerable number of leagues and cities that moved reluctantly in the orbits of one or other of the four kingdoms. They constituted at least "four-fifths of the world;" and, despite the superior military organization of Rome and the completeness with which she commanded the devotion of her people, it is unquestionable that had they concerted their efforts they could have thrust the Romans back into Latium or at least confined them to Italy.

What it was that was needed, and how imperative the need was, Hannibal seems to have been the only statesman of the age to see clearly, and this contributes to his uniqueness quite as much as does his unrivalled strategy. Why the Latin and Greek cities of Italy did not join the Italian allies of Rome in throwing off Rome's yoke and why Antiochus III and Ptolemy IV did not join Philip V of Macedon and Hieronymus of Syracuse in helping Hannibal; why the Aetolian League and Attalus of Pergamum took the field on Rome's side, are questions which may be illuminated by a knowledge of the antipathies that had to be overcome during the formation of the Triple Entente and of the considerations which led Austria-Hungary, Bulgaria, and Turkey to mortgage their future to Germany; but they can be discussed intelligently only in the light of previous Carthaginian enterprises in Sicily and Italy and of previous Macedonian and Seleucid operations in Greece and Egypt. In historical study nothing can ever dispense with as dispassionate and searching inquiry as is possible into the circumstances of the individual case.

Political and military activities are always determined in large measure by general conditions. In our time the world has become so small that it requires an imaginative *tour de force* for us to realize

the vast distances that separated the chief Mediterranean states from one another in the Hellenistic age. Yet the remoteness of one government from another at that time, when the Adriatic was broader than the Atlantic, impeded the growth of a common understanding of the general menace occasioned by Rome's advance; and, once the peril was appreciated, the central position of Italy made concerted measures of Rome's enemies difficult. There came to be added the crowning disaster to the liberties of the world that in that melancholy epoch the chief military power on land possessed also "the freedom of the sea in war time."

The liberties of the world? Had they not been destroyed prior to the Roman conquest, and did not the Romans enter the lists for their recovery?

As to the liberty of the states against which Rome fought in her Eastern expansion there can be no doubt. Macedon, Syria, Aetolia, and Achaia were free to wage wars and to contract alliances when they successively encountered the forces of Rome. But how about the liberties of their peoples? How about the smaller states associated with these larger states? Let us consider these questions for a moment.

Does it enlarge liberty to force upon a reluctant people a share in its own government? This applies to Macedon, whose citizens seem to have been eager to sacrifice their lives for a *régime* in which a national monarch had the sole determination of all important political questions. Here there could have been no voluntary enlargement of liberty. For the Greeks who were the actual or prospective subjects of the king of the Macedonians the case is different. These were, substantially, the Hellenic federations, of which the Achaean and Aetolian Leagues were the most important. As things stood on the eve of Roman intervention the Achaeans had submitted and the Aetolians were likely to succumb to the superior power, not, at least theoretically, of Macedon, but of a Hellenic League of Leagues of which the Macedonian king was the executive officer. Two processes of the utmost political importance had preceded this consummation:—the city-state, which from its very nature had been incapable of enlargement, had been supplanted by the federal league as the ultimate political unit; and the leagues had wrung such concessions from monarchic and autocratic Macedon that in the Hellenic League of Leagues which Antigonus Doson had created, each constituent league retained the essential requirement for healthy public life—final decision, reached in a general assembly and based upon popular assent, of the most important questions of

foreign as well as domestic policy. The leagues had conciliated the just demands of the city-states of which they were formed and of central government each within a circumscribed area; the League of Leagues had left to its constituent leagues adequate liberty of action and scope for its exercise while establishing a national unity that might, perhaps, have sufficed for self-defense.

The Hellenes created government by public opinion. In the classical age a government responsive to a united and intelligent public opinion could exist only in a city-state. For such a public opinion, in the absence of the facilities for communication within a large area which the nineteenth century of our era has developed, a primary assembly of all citizens, as Aristotle and all Greeks knew, was an absolute necessity. In the Hellenistic Age, by making a well thought out division of functions between the urban primary assemblies and the federal primary assembly, the political questions of the day were divided into those on which local differences were desirable and those on which general agreement was essential. By reducing in this way the frequency of the meetings a federal primary assembly became practicable for a district of considerable magnitude. A federal primary assembly open to all citizens was, however, regarded as indispensable for the formation of a unified and intelligent public opinion on federal questions. That this was so—that it was found necessary to create a common forum for the adjustment of urban points of view, that the citizens were brought to a central point for discussion together and the

ideas and arguments were not disseminated to them in their own towns—shows the limits of the possible in the formation of efficient states in Hellenistic times on democratic principles. It may, therefore, be argued that states so large as to make a single primary assembly impossible were creatable in the Hellenistic Age only at the sacrifice of the popular participation in government which is indispensable for political freedom.

For the liberties of the world, and—though space forbids the discussion of this question—for the progress of culture also, the maintenance of the many states existent in Hannibal's time—of the small and sound as well as the large and diseased: of the rude monarchies like Macedon, where common loyalty to a hereditary king was the mainspring of co-operative action on the part of his subjects; of the highly cultivated federations like the Achaean League, where unity was based on agreement and agreement on general discussion; of administrative autocracies like Syria and Egypt, where participation in the work of governing and educating, or exploiting, a non-political subject population bound rulers and their Hellenic or Hellenized helpers to a common purpose; of commercial republics like Rhodes and Carthage, whose activities opened and patrolled the sea-ways which were the paths of civilization; yea, even of quiet old-fashioned places like Sparta and Athens—the maintenance, that is to say, of a complex of divergent and competitive nationalities was a prime requirement.

## II. Suggested Points for Emphasis in the Tudor Period, 1485-1603

BY PROFESSOR ARTHUR LYON CROSS, UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN.

At first sight the period of Tudor absolutism would seem to be a hopelessly empty place for the student of English origins of American free institutions to search. There present themselves a line of strong-willed and seemingly despotic sovereigns and a series of apparently subservient parliaments, representing, after a fashion, a body of landed gentry and merchants chiefly intent on money-getting, craving for security rather than for liberty. A well-known indication of the situation is the fact that Shakespeare in "King John" does not even mention Magna Charta. However, the growth of free governments is a long process, compounded of many diverse, and, at least on the surface, incongruous elements. For one thing, the Tudor absolutism was peculiar—one might say almost unique—in that its strength was based on popularity, that it served the needs of the rising agricultural and commercial classes. It might be argued that this is also true of the Hohenzollern, but the result has been different. The latter régime has developed into an autocratic military and industrial machine, madly striving to dominate the world, the former, by virtue of two revolutions and a gradual constitutional development, was turned into a limited

monarchy. The middle classes fostered by the Tudors acquired wealth, leisure, education and influence enabling them to become the backbone of the resistance to the ill-starred Stuarts, to establish, if only temporarily, the first national republic in the world's history, and to furnish precedents for our ancestors in their subsequent struggle which culminated in the American Revolution. Moreover, masterful as they were, Henry VIII and Elizabeth utilized parliament to give their measures a show of national sanction, whereby that body gained invaluable experience and accumulated precedents for an increasing share in public business. Furthermore, parliament, even in those days, dared to assert itself more than once; for example, in the stand against Wolsey in the matter of the subsidy of 1528 and when it forced Elizabeth to realize the wisdom of revoking a whole sheaf of monopolies in 1601.

It is true that the Star Chamber was a creation of this period, but it was set up originally to meet a real need, to suppress disorders with which the existing administrative machinery was unable to cope: only later was it perverted into an engine of oppression, and was in consequence abolished. The Tudor

monarchs separated from Rome from motives of self-interest, no doubt, yet, in so doing, they broke down established traditions and started forces of opposition which came, in the course of a century, to assert successfully the principle that the Reformation should not be merely political—simply a substitution of royal for papal supremacy over the Church of England—but a great religious and social movement. The Puritan Revolution was the inevitable outcome of the English Reformation.

It must be remembered, also, that the interval between the advent of Henry VII and the death of Elizabeth marks the emergence of England as a sea power. While Portuguese and Spaniards were the pioneers, Englishmen ultimately outstripped all their rivals in brilliant and enduring achievement in exploration, colonization and trade. They braved the perils of unknown seas and unknown lands, they broke through the colonial and commercial monopoly of Spain, and attempted settlements along the American shore, which, if they proved abortive in this period, prepared the way for those which secured a permanent foothold in the century that followed. In the domain of industry, too, the Tudor régime heralded a new

era for, with other strongholds of medieval conservatism, the guilds were broken up, and the ground laid for that marvelous industrial revolution of the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries, a revolution in which England led the way and one which has been regarded as more far-reaching in its consequences than even the French Revolution. In the field of local government, also, the student of our American institutions must turn to the Tudor times. The New England system of town government, that fruitful nursery of democracy, was derived from the parish system of Tudor England and brought by the Pilgrims and the Puritans to their homes in the new world. From the same source came the justices of the peace, then at the height of their activity and still an important factor in our local administration. Finally, it is needless to call attention to the priceless literary heritage which has come down to us from the Elizabethan age, from Shakespeare and his contemporaries.

So the Tudor period, in all aspects of life, is big with significance for those who live in the United States to-day and who should know the origin of our cherished institutions.

### III. The American Revolution and the British Empire

BY PROFESSOR EVARTS B. GREENE, UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS.

It is natural to think of the American Revolution first of all as the birth time of the American nation; though nationality was a plant of slow growth, the elements of it at least were brought out by the struggle for independence. The Revolution was, however, much more than the formation of a new nation; it was also the starting point of our international politics. It was, in particular, the beginning of a new relation with the world power commonly known as the British Empire, but more and more coming to be thought of by liberals on both sides of the Atlantic as the British Commonwealth of Nations, an imperial federation whose increasingly democratic ideals have certainly gained much of their power from the successful revolt of the Thirteen Colonies in 1776.

The student who is interested in this international aspect of the Revolution realizes at once that he must take account not only of what actually happened before and during that upheaval, but also of men's ideas about those happenings; for these thoughts, feelings, and prejudices about the past have become themselves social forces affecting deeply the attitude of two great peoples toward each other. In short, the teacher of the revolutionary period may well give some attention to the history of historical writing on this subject.

The earliest histories of the Revolution were deeply tinged on both sides by partisan feeling. To the Scottish historian George Chalmers, once an official in the British colonial service, the revolt of the colonies seemed to be the working out to its logical result of an insubordinate and rebellious spirit which the home gov-

ernment ought to have checked in its earlier stages. In America the view which naturally prevailed was that of the victorious Whig party. About fifty years after the war for independence, in the floodtide of Jacksonian Democracy and under a president who could still remember some unpleasant experience in the border warfare of the Revolution, George Bancroft, began publishing his famous history of the United States. Though Bancroft had many admirable qualities, his stand-point was not wholly scientific; what he undertook was a kind of epic of American democracy with the radical Whigs as his heroes and King George and his associates as the villains of the play. On the whole he saw in the revolution a clean cut issue between tyranny on the one side and liberty on the other. The leadership of Bancroft in the older school of American historians naturally perpetuated this way of thinking. It was reproduced in a great variety of popular histories, in the speeches of Fourth of July orators, and in most of the nineteenth-century text-books. Thus on both sides of the Atlantic, the animosities of the struggle itself and the legends which grew up about it tended to encourage the kind of patriot to whom love of country seems to mean chiefly hatred of some other nation.

Gradually, however, the passage of time has made possible a more scientific interpretation. In England, this was made easier by the fact that all through the Revolution a brilliant, though not always very influential group of statesmen led by Charles James Fox sympathized with the American Whigs as against their own government. These men and their admirers in

later times did not find it hard to think of Washington as one of the defenders of civil liberty against the reactionary policies of George III and the Court party. British Whigs have not been strictly objective any more than American Whigs or British Tories, but they have at least helped Englishmen to realize the many-sided character of the old controversy. The most attractive writer of this Whig School of historians is, of course, Sir George O. Trevelyan, whose recent volumes on the Revolution probably have more literary distinction than any others produced on this subject on either side of the Atlantic. A few recent English writers have revived something of the old Tory spirit, as, for instance, Belcher in his "First American Civil War;" but on the whole the attitude of intelligent Englishmen is probably best expressed by such a well-balanced, fair-minded narrative as that of Lecky in his "History of England in the Eighteenth Century." Incidentally, it may be noted that English admiration for the chief hero of our Revolution has not been confined to Whigs. While Bancroft was writing the early volumes of his history of the United States, the English historian Adolphus found it possible to reconcile a high regard for King George III with a respectful treatment of George Washington.

In America, the scientific treatment of the Revolution has been made easier by the steady decline among intelligent Americans of the old-fashioned type of Anglophobia. The "Hundred Years Peace" has helped to bring about this result, notwithstanding some unpleasantness during our Civil War. A scarcely less important factor has been the application of scientific methods in our university departments of teaching and research. Students so trained soon realized that a great event like the Revolution could hardly be explained by the old simple formulæ. However mistaken and reprehensible the acts of British politicians might have been, the Revolution obviously could not be understood without at least some appreciation of the problems of the time as they appeared to the men who were officially responsible for the government of the British Empire. Thanks to the studies of British policy worked out by Osgood, Channing, Andrews, Beer, Alvord, and other American investigators, these things are now much better understood by scholars; but we must depend on the teachers to see that Americans generally get the benefit of this broader outlook. Similar service has been rendered by Tyler and Van Tyne, whose studies of the loyalists have enabled us to think more intelligently of that "lost cause," and by iconoclastic writers like Fisher who help us to see the mingling of coarser with finer elements in these as in all other human affairs.

Our own national experience has also affected historical writing because it has made us realize better the difficulty of securing effective action for general purposes without sacrificing the spirit of local self-government. Before the Revolution, most Americans thought it unnecessary to give any general authority

the right to levy taxes for the "common defence and general welfare." Even in 1788, Patrick Henry clung to the old method of getting money by requisitions sent to thirteen different assemblies; but the experience of practical statesmen under the Articles of Confederation convinced them that the popular theory would not work. Before 1776, Americans were much annoyed by the royal veto on colonial laws, but by 1787 the framers of the Constitution saw the need of some central authority to protect the interests of the whole against those of a part; even a strong republican like Madison realized that this unpopular royal prerogative had some justification. Federal control of western territories, involving problems of Indian affairs, public lands, and conservation, our new responsibility for island colonies—all these things have suggested the real difficulties of imperial administration and hence made our study of the Revolution less partisan and one-sided.

Though the purpose of this brief essay has been to illustrate our new mode of approach to these problems of revolutionary history rather than to indicate a definitive interpretation, it is perhaps worth while to suggest briefly a fairly general consensus of opinion toward which we seem to be tending. Is it not something like this? During the colonial era, and especially after the last French War, there had developed a natural conflict between two ideals and two groups of interests, both in themselves quite legitimate. British statesmen naturally desired for their growing empire a unified organization which should provide effectively for the defence and development of its various parts and especially of the mother country. It was equally natural that the expanding English commonwealths across the sea, trained in the theory and practice of self-government by the most liberal colonial administration then maintained by any European nation, should feel more keenly with every passing decade the desire to settle their own American, or local, problems in their own way. To reconcile these differences, in an age when it took three or four months at least to exchange letters between the imperial government and its overseas colonies, was not perhaps impossible; but it certainly required statesmanship of the highest kind. It is doubtful whether any statesman of the period, Whig or Tory, was equal to such a task. At any rate, British politics was then so chaotic that if a careful thinker on colonial problems, like Shelburne for example, got into a position of influence he could not keep it long enough to carry out a consistent policy. Those who did exert decisive influence were generally men of narrow vision like Grenville or George III himself, or ministers of unsteady purpose like Lord North, or corrupt politicians like the "Bloomsbury gang." So the opportunity was lost and the old Empire broken in two.

There are certainly few Americans who do not see in the freer, larger life thus opened up for a new nationality abundant compensation for the failures of eighteenth century statesmen. Democracy through-

out the world has certainly profited also from the experiments performed in our great laboratory of politics. Even England herself has gained by the experience. The victory at Yorktown checked reactionary tendencies at home as well as in America and, after an interval of indifference about the colonies, British statesmen of the last half century have found a way

in Canada, in Australia, and in South Africa, to unite self-governing peoples in loyalty to common interests and common ideals. In the light of the great conflict in which we are now engaged, the anniversary of our national independence, so far from losing its importance at home, has gained an even larger, more truly international, meaning.

## IV. The Historic Role of the Slavs

BY PROFESSOR ROBERT J. KERNER, UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI.

In the mind of the average American, the Slavic race, though it occupies an extensive space upon the map, has made no important contributions to European history. This mistaken attitude is not difficult to explain. Until recently, the general ignorance in Western Europe of the power and ruthlessness of the German expansion to the east, and of the destructive migrations of nomad nations from Asia caused Westerners to believe that the apparent lack of progress among the Slavs was due to some innate stupidity in their make-up; of the real cause, the fact that they were for centuries engaged in a life and death struggle with the two most powerful organized military forces known to history, the west had no clear knowledge.

The Slavs have made notable contributions to the world's history. They have had their saints, their heroes and their men of intellect and genius. Unfortunately many of these are but slightly known to western readers, and too often our knowledge of them has been derived from German sources. But greater than the achievements of individuals are the contributions which the Slavic nations have made in some crises of human progress. Neither racial nor religious prejudice should be allowed to obscure the importance of the fight which the Bohemians under John Hus made in the fifteenth century for intellectual freedom and religious toleration. Nor can any one, who has followed closely the history of Asia and Europe, forget the struggle of the Russians from the thirteenth to the sixteenth centuries against their Asiatic conquerors or the heroic and successful efforts of the Poles and Bohemians to stem the tide of Turkish conquest in the seventeenth century. It was the stubborn resistance which the Slavs offered to outside forces that saved Western and Central Europe and gave those lands time to create a Germano-Roman culture.

The Slavs had no opportunity to create a civilization wholly their own; but they carried what they borrowed to the limits of their vast possessions and guarded tenaciously the little that they might themselves contribute in the way of creative ideas. Slavic civilization is, therefore, not wholly without native elements. We can make this clear by examining briefly the evolution of Slavic Europe from two points of view, from without and from within.

From without, Slavic Europe came under the influence of forces which profoundly altered her course in history. The first and foremost of these was the disastrous competition between Catholic Rome and

Orthodox Constantinople for the Pagan Slavic hinterland. The result was a compromise which divided the Slavs into two opposing camps of religion and culture. The Slavic races thus came to have two competing religions, two alphabets, and two literary languages, as different as Latin and Greek. Thus a mighty blow was delivered at the unity of the Slavic peoples at the very outset of their historic career.

Slavic Europe was next exposed to two powerfully organized military races: the Germans and the Asiatic nomads. In the eighth century began the Teutonic *Drang nach Osten* with the foundation of the Carolingian Marks, of which the Mark of the East (Austria) and that of Brandenburg in time became the seats of the Hapsburgs and of the Hohenzollerns. The Slavs between the Elbe and the Oder were given an opportunity to become Christian and thus subject to Germanization; if they refused they were exterminated. The activities of the Prussian knights and junkers endangered the Polish state and forced it, at the end of the fourteenth century, to seek salvation in a union with Lithuania. Bohemia to save herself became a kingdom in the Holy Roman Empire. The *Drang nach Osten* continued until many of the Slavic tribes were either incorporated in a German state or made subject to German economic penetration.

From the fifth to the fifteenth centuries Slavic Europe was exposed to a series of nomad invasions from the east; the invaders were Huns, Chazars, Bulgars, Avars, Hungarians, Mongols, and Turks. The Bulgars conquered certain Slavic peoples in the Balkans, but were in turn assimilated by them and have left behind only their name and military organization. The Hungarians planted themselves on the banks of the Danube south-east of the Mark of Austria and thus thrust a wedge between the Southern Slavs and those of the north and west. This wedge was completed when the Rumanians emerged to the south of the Hungarians and along the southern Danube.

The effect of the Teutonic *Drang nach Osten* and the pressure of the Yellow Peril was to split the Slavs, so far as possible political unity was concerned. The Mongols conquered Russia and made her tributary for two hundred years. In the fourteenth century the Turks overwhelmed the Balkan Slavs. To the Slavs who were seeking to found a culture, the *Drang nach Osten* and the *Yellow Peril* were stern realities which permitted little time for anything but the de-



velopment of such negative qualities as tenacity, stubbornness and patience, which have become associated with the Slavic "type."

In the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries feudalism decayed in Western Europe while it became stronger in Central and Eastern Europe. It is generally admitted that serfdom became most burdensome in Prussia and Poland. In Russia because of the constant warfare for existence, autocracy and Asiatic land tenure were introduced and the greater part of the land ultimately passed into the hands of "the serving men." In the course of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries the peasants were gradually bound to the land and to "the serving men." The absence of trading centers and cities of commerce, due to the abandonment of the ancient river traffic between the Baltic and the Black seas and of the overland trade between the Far East and Europe, was another factor in the development of feudalism and serfdom in Poland, and of the Byzantine autocracy, Asiatic land tenure, and serfdom in Russia—all of which meant a backward peasantry and the persistence of purely agrarian conditions.

Nationalism and democracy, born of the French revolution and of the partitioning of Poland, revived and regenerated a fallen Slavic Europe. The Bohemians, the Slovaks, the Slovenians, the Serbo-Croats, and the Bulgarians rose as if from the dead. The Polish nation, though partitioned and oppressed for a century, gave weight to the belief that a state may be destroyed, but a nation never. The Slavs in the nineteenth century found themselves largely in the power of the Germans and the Turks. Their efforts to achieve independence brought their instinctive radical democracy to the surface. In the present war the sympathies of the Slavs, where they have been permitted to reveal their feelings, have, on the whole, been with Western Europe and America; for they see more clearly than many Americans the difference between the autocracy of their German and Turkish overlords and the democracy of the *Entente*. And there is reason to believe that the democratization of Russia will remove the "Slavic Peril" from the German mind and make possible the long hoped-for reciprocity and co-operation by all the Slavic peoples in a future cultural, if not political, unity.

Within the Slavic world, these external influences met with qualities which produced the wrong combination for the successful building of states in a practical and highly materialistic society. By temperament the Slav is idealistic and gifted in music, literature, and art. He is a radical democrat, is jealous of his kinsmen, and is easily led to trust foreigners rather than those of his own kind. The fall of Poland is a good instance of this, and the present condition will afford a clearer insight into the problems of Slavic state-building in the past.

As to the future of the new Russian republic, nothing can be predicted, but we may well believe that the Russian people have already contributed largely to the democratization of world politics. It is therefore not by mere accident that Slavic Europe is looking

westward to America, to England, and to France for fresh hope and practical assistance. But before we can help the Slavic peoples we must know their life and their history.

## American Historical Review

The October number of the "American Historical Review" (XXIII, No. 1) opens with a paper by G. L. Kittredge, entitled, "A Case of Witchcraft," in which the writer analyzes and gives excerpts from English documents concerning witchcraft of the years 1601 and 1602. W. T. Root traces the organization and activities of the English Lords of Trade and Plantations during the years 1675 to 1696, a period of their history which has not been fully treated heretofore. "The Mission as a Frontier Institution in the Spanish-American Colonies" is described by Herbert E. Bolton. Professor Bolton points out the importance of the mission as a pioneering agency, and emphasizes in this paper the political and social influence of the mission upon the natives. In addition to spreading the faith, the missionaries "explored the frontiers, promoted their occupation, defended them and the interior settlements, taught the Indians the Spanish language, and disciplined them in good manners, in the rudiments of European crafts, of agriculture, and even of self-government. Moreover, the missions were a force which made for the preservation of the Indians, as opposed to their destruction, so characteristic of the Anglo-American frontier."

"German Socialism, 1848-1917," is reconsidered by C. J. H. Hayes in the light of the present world war. He shows how the growth of an opportunist section of the Social Democratic party prepared the way for the Socialist support of the military budget in 1913, and their acceptance of the war decision of August, 1914. Communications to this number of the "Review" include suggestions upon the trades of antiquity, English imperial review of provincial legislation, and maximum prices in France, 1793-1794. Documents printed for the first time relate to the New England Emigrant Aid Company, and to a French official account of the conflict between the Kearsarge and the Alabama. There is the usual wealth of book reviews and personal and literary notes, among which may be mentioned six pages of notes upon publications dealing with the war.

## PEACE PROPOSALS AND PROGRAMS.

Under the title, "Towards an Enduring Peace," Mr. Randolph S. Bourne has compiled a number of speeches and magazine articles by various writers, together with the texts of documents propounded by conferences, societies and individuals during the years 1914-1916. The volume of 336 pages is published by the American Association for International Conciliation (New York), and carries an introduction from the pen of Professor Franklin H. Giddings.

Papers upon the economic principles of permanent peace are the work of J. A. Hobson, H. M. Brailsford, W. Lippman and W. E. Walling. Those on the political principles of a peace settlement are contributed by A. J. Toynbee, G. L. Dickinson, and C. W. Eliot. "A League of Peace" is discussed by J. A. Hobson, J. B. Clark, C. W. Eliot, A. L. Lowell, H. Holt, N. Angell, A. A. Tenney, N. M. Butler, R. Rolland, R. Eucken, W. Lippman, A. E. Zimmern, and Jane Addams.

The documents consist of reports of peace societies, national and international, socialists' conferences, labor parties, and individual propositions. The papers are drawn from the United States, Great Britain, Germany, France, Switzerland, and Holland.

# Latin-American History in the High School: an Experiment

BY LAURA F. ULLRICK, M.A., KENILWORTH, ILL.

For several years past, the members of the history department of New Trier Township High School have been troubled by the small registration in the third year history course. It amounted year after year to only ten or fifteen from a total enrollment of about six hundred. The only course offered was English history throughout the year.

A study of the situation convinced us that the unpopularity of the course was due to two things. First, the student had to take the entire year to secure any credit in the course. Failure in either semester lost him his credit for the whole year. On the other hand, if the high school would grant credit for one semester of the course without the other, no college or university would give entrance credit for one half year of English history when it covered only one half of the field.

A second reason for the small enrollment was the fact that about fifty per cent. of the students in the school were preparing for college entrance. In order to meet the language requirements made by most colleges, the student did not have time to take history for his entire third year. On investigation, it was found that many students could and would put in a half year course if such were offered. This was true particularly of those who had some irregularity in their courses.

Again, it was observed that the majority of the few who did elect the English history, had taken European history in the second year. This caused more or less of repetition for them, for, in a high school course, the Hundred Years War with France, or the Napoleonic Wars, or any of the periods in which England was closely involved with the affairs of Europe, are not essentially different when taught from the English standpoint, from what they are when taught from the European standpoint. Especially must this be true when part of the class has not had the second year course.

For these reasons, it was decided to be advisable to cut the English history to a half year course, putting the emphasis upon the phases which would furnish a background for English literature, and upon the nineteenth century for an understanding of the present. The periods which are but a reflection of great European movements were to be touched upon but lightly.

Next, the question arose as to what should be offered for the second half of the third year. Various propositions were considered—French history, a study of the conditions leading to the present European war, industrial history, Latin-American history. The commercial department approved of the last suggestion and it seemed most timely and inviting.

The new course was tried last year. At once the registration in English history doubled. This last September the enrollment was still further increased, thus proving that the speculations as to the reasons for the small membership had been somewhere near correct. In February the Latin-American class filled up to class-room capacity. That this was due not altogether to the novelty of the course, is believed because of the large number of inquiries concerning the course this last fall. The prospects are that the class will be larger this year than last. Many of the commercial and Spanish students take it, who would otherwise get no history. It is worthy of note that several of these became interested enough to enter the English half of the course in September.

On the whole, we believe the experiment to have been a success, and shall repeat it this year. By a careful selection of topics, the English history course can be made to meet in one semester all the demands for a background for English literature and American history. A greater number get this background than under the old arrangement. It is true there are some difficulties in the presentation of the Latin-American history. Scarcity of material is one, and the necessity of using the lecture method of presentation is another. However, there are available a few good volumes as reference books for supplementary reading with which to strengthen the impression made by the lectures. Latin-American history is full of interest in itself. The story of the Spanish and Portuguese conquest of the vast South American continent with its ancient civilization and its savage wilderness, of their long unbroken and despotic sway from the Gulf of Mexico to Cape Horn, and of the final breaking up of this empire into numerous independent States, is a fascinating one. At present this fascination is enhanced by growing commercial expansion to the southward, and by the tendency to travel that way since the European paths are closed.

Our conclusion is that this course has come to stay and that this arrangement has met a real need. Inasmuch as the history field in the high school has been broadened with a gain rather than a loss of effectiveness, we believe the history department has thereby been strengthened.

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Bertrand L. Conway, C.S.P., writes on "The False Decretals" in "The Catholic World" for August, 1917, a Catholic's refutation of Mr. Davenport's Lothian prize essay on that subject.

"The Higher Education of Indian Women," by Eleanor McDougall, in the July "International Review of Missions," gives a clear insight into domestic and social conditions in India.

# Progress Within the Subject Applied to High School History

BY PROFESSOR R. M. TRYON, UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO.

There is in all probability no other subject in the high school curriculum that is being attacked at the present time any more vigorously by educators than history. Professor Snedden in the most recent of his many attacks on the subject concludes by saying that affairs in high school history and its teaching have finally become so bad that a revolution along these lines is necessary to remedy matters. To Mr. Snedden a mere evolution into things better out of existing conditions will not suffice. He desires to see an entirely new order supplant the existing one. It is his belief that, in spite of the many recent efforts to improve the teaching of history in the high school, the subject still falls far short of doing what it should do for high school boys and girls.<sup>1</sup> To the writer's knowledge neither Mr. Snedden nor any other educator of wide influence would remove history from the high school program. There is practically uniform agreement that the subject can be made of much value in the lives of the young people who pursue it for one or more years during their high school careers. Now, because of this general agreement as to the great value of history among those who have little or no interest in the subject *per se*, and yet have much influence in shaping current educational thought and practice, and because these same individuals are equally uniform in their belief that history as now taught and administered in our high schools is of little or no value, it certainly behooves those of us who are actively engaged in the teaching of high school history to apply ourselves vigorously to this matter and prove to our critics that the subject can be so taught that it will be of even greater value in the lives of the boys and girls in our secondary schools than has yet been suggested by any one of their number.

Of the lines along which improvement in our current methods of teaching high school history is needed, there are few that require more attention than the one suggested by the topic of this discussion. It is a well-known fact that administrators take liberties with history that they would not think of taking with other subjects. For example, no one ever heard of a high school senior being permitted to take, say, fourth term Latin, mathematics, or German, without having had the first three. The reason for this becomes evident when one reflects upon the fact that the principle of progress within the subject has been so firmly established in some of the high school studies that no one ever thinks of violating it when administering them. The maturity exemplified in the organization and the teaching of subjects like Latin and algebra is not to be found in history and some other

of the relatively new subjects in the high school curriculum.

It should be said at the outset that progression within the subject of history cannot be wholly attained as it is in the subjects of Latin and mathematics where it is secured largely through the organization of the subject-matter. In these subjects things must be learned in one, two, three order. The fact that that which follows is so closely related to all that goes before makes it necessary to know the latter before any progress can be made in the former. While this logical sequence is in their favor when considered from the standpoint of their teachableness, yet as Director Judd has so well pointed out in his "Psychology of High School Subjects"<sup>2</sup> some of these traditional subjects are capable of even greater progression. There is need in them for the same sort or very similar method of procedure that is needed in history and science. For, as they are now taught, the principle of progress within the subject is too often subordinated to mere subject-matter. Nevertheless, in spite of this fact, these subjects are much superior to history when considered as to their logical organization. Historical facts, conditions and institutions, are on a dead level when thought of as to their teachableness. Most any fact can be taught most anywhere with a certain degree of success. This is simply another way of saying that progression within the subject of history is not and indeed cannot be secured entirely through the organization of the subject-matter. The problem of gradation in this subject is largely one of method of procedure. This fact has been so clearly demonstrated by Professor Johnson in his "Teaching of History in Secondary and Elementary Schools"<sup>3</sup> that it needs no further elaboration here.

Now, if progression within the subject of history is to be secured largely through method of procedure, is it possible to devise a method which will insure this progression? The writer's answer to this question is in the affirmative. Others have answered it similarly. For example, Judd, in the work to which reference has already been made, proposes the following solution of the matter when he says:

"For example, suppose the history course could be organized in such a way that the demand made upon the student in the earlier years of the history course were, first of all, for ability to comprehend a coherent narrative of successive events. Suppose that at this stage we do not demand any very large explanation of the events studied. Suppose that at the second stage of his study we ask the student not only to

<sup>1</sup> "Problems of Secondary Education," Sections XVI and XVII.

<sup>2</sup> Pp. 459, f.  
<sup>3</sup> Chapter II.

understand the history that he is studying, but also to understand the physical facts which influence history, making at this stage of the course a correlation between history and geography. This would demand a power of comparison and associative thinking. Suppose that in the third stage we asked for a mastery of evidences upon which history is based; that is, a critical evaluation of the original sources. Suppose, finally, at the last stage of historical discussion, we asked the student to make a critical comparison of the different authorities who have attempted to interpret a given period."<sup>4</sup>

History teachers in general are in agreement with the foregoing suggestions relative to the solution of the problem of progression within their subject. It seems, however, that Doctor Judd has omitted from his solution an important item, namely, that of definitely assigning each of his stages to definite grades in the high school. His four stages would suggest that they were to apply to the corresponding high school years. If such be the intention, it might be suggested that high school freshmen should be required to do more than the first of the foregoing stages demands. It might also be suggested that it would be better for the student as he proceeds through his high school history course to become progressively efficient in each of the four proposed stages as he moves forward term by term. These reflections on Doctor Judd's proposals strongly emphasize the complexity of the problem under consideration, and the various angles from which its solution might be approached.

It might be well at this stage of the discussion to examine some of the seeming insurmountable difficulties connected with a satisfactory solution of our problem. To the writer's thinking, the following are the chief obstacles in the way of a complete and systematic gradation of history and the teaching of history in the high school: (1) Beyond one year, the subject is often elective. (2) The required history is usually American, given in the fourth year. (3) The traditional notion so common among school administrators that history can be used as a filler. (4) The subject-matter of history *per se* does not form the basis of a systematic progression as it does in some other subjects. (5) The intangibility of the results to be obtained from the study of history perpetuates an indefiniteness that eludes all efforts at gradation. (6) The demand that the subject must be taught for the sake of those taking it rather than for the sake of the subject itself, which is another way of saying that history must be so taught in the high school that it will be proportionately as valuable to the student who takes one year as to the student who takes two or even four years. With such an array of seemingly insurmountable difficulties facing one, the task of suggesting a scheme whereby progress within the subject of high school history can be secured seems an almost impossible one. However, the task is not so formidable as it at first seems; neither is the situation relative to the amount of history required and offered

without encouragements. For when one reflects upon the fact that in 1915 out of 7,197 secondary schools reporting, 3,794 required ancient history, 3,083 medieval and modern, 4,341 American, and 1,959 English, the difficulties arising from the lack of continuity in high school history courses do not seem so great. Furthermore, the fact that out of the 7,197 schools reporting, 6,141 offered ancient history, 5,745 medieval and modern, 6,201 American, and 4,625 English, and that but 963 schools offered only elective history, furnishes cause for additional encouragements to those of us who are interested in the problem of grading history.<sup>5</sup> So in spite of the foregoing array of difficulties, it is quite worth while to be thinking of the solution of the problem, while we are waiting for some of them to be overcome. If school administrators can be convinced that there is such a thing as progression within the subject of history, they will be willing to remedy some of the adverse present-day conditions relative to this matter.

While this discussion is confined to progression within one cycle of the complete history course, yet the importance of the subject when considered in its relation to the various related cycles should not be overlooked. For example, the causes of the American Revolution are taught in the seventh grade of the elementary school, the fourth year of the high school, and the senior year of college. Herein is found one of the big problems in the matter of gradation or progression. How shall the history work done in the fourth year of the high school differ from that done in the seventh grade, and how shall the senior college work differ from that done in the last year of the high school? The truth of the matter is that too often the second cycle makes little or no advance over the first, and the third not sufficient over the second. A little while ago the writer visited a high school senior class in American history. From all appearances the class was one capable of doing work in history considerably in advance of what an average eighth grade could do. But in this case the tone of the work and the facts considered were not at all above the ability of an ordinary eighth grader. Here was a class of wide-awake and capable seniors marking time in American history because some one had neglected the principle of progress within this particular subject. Nor is the college work always pitched to a height not previously attained in the high school, a fact which often works a gross injustice to the student who has had a strong high school course. Such a student works side by side with one who did not have that particular history in the high school, and for whom the work is too often pitched, hence a bore to the student who has previously read most of the required reading and knows most of the required content.

The measures necessary to solve the immediately foregoing situation is quite out of the reach of an individual teacher. Possibly in time our history courses will be organized with a view of taking care of this phase of the problem. That it is a problem has been recognized in many quarters. The History

<sup>4</sup> "Psychology of High School Subjects," pp. 456, f.

<sup>5</sup> "Com. Educ., Report," 1915, I, 120.

Teachers' Association of the Middle States and Maryland had it up for consideration both in the 1906 and 1915 meetings. In the latter it took the form of a consideration of the differentiation of history in the high school from history in the elementary school, and of history in the college from history in the high school, illustrated by reference to the causes of the American Revolution. The papers presented on this occasion worked out in some detail the phases of the subject to be taught in each cycle. It is unnecessary to go into these proposals here. It should be said, however, that if a similar treatment of all the subjects in American history which appear in each cycle were at hand and as familiar to history teachers as, say, the report of the Committee of Seven, much progress would have been made in the solution of a problem that is now entailing much waste of time.<sup>6</sup>

The foregoing problem was mentioned with no thought of offering a concrete plan of solving it. It is quite possible that the present committee of the American Historical Association, which is working on a list of topics for each field of high school history, will contribute greatly toward its solution so far as it relates to the high school and the college. But what can the individual teacher do about the general problem while she is waiting for co-operative effort to solve what might be termed the organization phase? The remainder of the discussion will be confined to the answering of this question.

Since progress within the subject of high school history is to be secured largely through the teacher's method of procedure, it therefore becomes very necessary for his or her method to be definite, and show increasing complexities as it carries the students forward from semester to semester. For example, the teacher will need to formulate a scheme something like the following:

AN OUTLINE OF A METHOD OF PROCEDURE IN HIGH SCHOOL HISTORY, PURPORTING TO APPLY THE PRINCIPLE OF PROGRESS WITHIN THE SUBJECT.

A. First Year of the Senior High School.

1. Recitation by topic.
  - a. Pupils present the facts in a one or two minute oral recitation.
  - b. Pupils answer interpretative and review questions put by the teacher.
2. Assignment should include:
  - a. Full outline of the work given by teacher at first with definite instructions relative to its preparation.
  - b. Later, student may make his own outline after considerable attention has been given to such work during the progress of the course.
3. Supplementary reading to include:
  - a. An account paralleling that of the text.

<sup>6</sup> Hedge, Louise J., "Differentiation in the Elementary School History from That of the High School;" Dougherty, Philip, "Material and Treatment for a Senior Class in the High School;" Spencer, C. W., "Material and Treatment for a College Class," all found in the 1915 proceedings of the foregoing Association. See also "Differentiation in Treatment of the American Revolution in Elementary School, High School, and College," by A. W. Smith, in the 1906 proceedings of the same Association.

- b. A short special treatment of some topic in the lesson.
  - c. Short biographies.
  - d. Limited amount of source readings.
  4. Report on supplementary reading in the form of:
    - a. Oral recitation of from two to three minutes in length on special topics.
    - b. Outline, synopsis, or summary handed in.
    - c. Contributions during the class period based on parallel readings.
  5. Permanent note-book exercises such as:
    - a. One-paragraph themes on topics related to the daily work.
    - b. Short biographical sketches of representative historical personages.
    - c. Outlines given by the teacher or made by the pupil.
    - d. Concrete exercises based on source material.
    - e. Pictures and edited clippings.
    - f. Copied illustrations and drawings.
    - g. Tabulations and comparisons.
    - h. Outline maps filled in.
    - i. Graphic representations made by the pupil.
  6. Oral recitations of from twenty to twenty-five minutes on important periods of history after they have been studied in class.
  7. One or two minute oral reports on current topics.
- B. Second Year of the Senior High School.
1. Topical recitation involving on the part of the pupil:
    - a. A rather elaborate and continuous treatment of a topic.
    - b. An application of his knowledge through answers to the teacher's questions involving causes, effects and interpretations.
  2. Supplementary reading which includes:
    - a. An account paralleling that of the text.
    - b. A fuller parallel account.
    - c. A special treatment of a topic connected with the recitation of the day.
    - d. Source extracts.
    - e. Current literature.
  3. Reports on supplementary reading in the form of:
    - a. Contributions during class discussion.
    - b. Oral recitations of from five to fifteen minutes in length on some one topic.
    - c. Outline handed in.
  4. Permanent note-book exercises, such as:
    - a. One or two page themes on topics closely related to the daily work.
    - b. Synopses of brief selections of source material.
    - c. Answers to search questions on secondary or source material.
    - d. Characterizations and summaries of periods or movements.
    - e. Outline maps filled in.
    - f. Tabulations and comparisons.
    - g. Synopses or outlines of reports made in class by other pupils.
    - h. Notes on lectures given by the teacher.
    - i. Reports on contemporary events.
  5. Oral recitations extending over the whole of the recitation on important periods previously studied in class.
  6. Oral report on current topics, based on the reading of a number of stories of the same event.
- C. Third Year of the Senior High School.
1. Topical recitation with emphasis on longitudinal treatment.
  2. Supplementary reading which includes:
    - a. An account paralleling that of the text.
    - b. A fuller parallel account.

- c. A special treatment of a topic or period.
- d. Source material.
- e. Biographies.
- f. Current literature.
3. Report on supplementary reading in form of:
  - a. Contributions during the class discussion.
  - b. Oral reports on topics specially assigned.
  - c. Cards handed in showing kind and amount of reading done.
4. Temporary note-book to include:
  - a. Outline of work given by the teacher.
  - b. Voluntary notes on reading done.
  - c. Sketch maps for use in daily recitation.
  - d. Summaries made in class.
  - e. Notes on lectures given by the teacher and reports made by other members of the class.
  - f. A few outline maps filled in.
  - g. Bibliographical materials.
  - h. Charts, graphs and similar materials.
5. Oral recitation extending over one or more recitations on important periods previously studied in class.
6. An elaborate term paper, prepared according to the following plan:
  - a. Select subject not later than the second week of the semester, the selection to be voluntary from a list proposed by the teacher.
  - b. Class set dates for the reading to be finished, the general outline, the first copy, and the final copy to be in.
  - c. Spend some time each week in discussing the progress made, difficulties encountered, and the technique of footnote references. Develop inductively a set of rules for the latter.
  - d. Each pupil hand in each week his notes secured during the week, relative to his paper. These notes to be kept by the teacher and returned when enough reading has been done.
  - e. The week following the return of the notes an outline based on them is to be made by each pupil. This is approved by the teacher and returned.
  - f. The first copy of the paper comes in on the date previously set by the class.
  - g. If necessary, the first copy is returned and the final one comes in on the date previously set.
  - h. Papers not to be read in class. Much of the material has been used during the progress of the course.
7. During second semester a paper should be written on some current political, economic, social or civic topic. This work should be done rather independently.
8. Previous training in reading and reporting on current topics should be utilized. The current problem work will be carried on almost exclusively in this manner.

A mere glance at the foregoing outline reveals the fact that progress is secured through increased ability to do certain things relative to the work rather than by mere knowledge as is the case in some other subjects. He would be a pupil of rather unusual ability who could enter the third year of history and do the work according to the method outlined above who had not had the training secured from the first two years' work as proposed. For example, in the writing of the term paper the student applies all his previous training in historical reading and note-taking as well as the technique of footnote references which he has gradually mastered. It would also be quite difficult for the newcomer into the third year

class to recite consecutively and logically for two class periods without notes without having had the training which the first two years of the history work aims to give. Neither could a newcomer do the type of outside reading demanded in the third-year course without the ability developed by two years of training in such work. And, finally, it would be an extraordinary student who could prepare independently the type of paper demanded during the last semester of the history work, as well as do the type of daily work demanded in this course.

While the plan as outlined above has in mind the three years of the senior high school or the last three years of the four-year high school, yet at the same time, it could be adapted to any three years of high school history work. For a school having four years of history it would need some revisions and additions.

It is quite possible that in the hands of some teachers the foregoing method of procedure would become stereotyped and formal, thus making the work lifeless and of little value. It is also quite possible that the progressive standards of attainment demanded in each year might be so vague and indefinite in the mind of a teacher that a pupil could move along through the course without progressing in his ability to do the things which the outline demands. To overcome these possibilities the teacher will need only to vary her recitation procedure as the occasion requires, and to let the class set the standard according to the demands made by the outline. It is the writer's conviction that the outline itself presents sufficient possibilities for variation to prevent the plan from becoming formal and lifeless.

To do high school history work of very great value the supplementary reading proposed is quite necessary. As a rule, some such work should be done every day and used in the recitation period as the outline suggests. While formal oral reports on outside reading are usually an unmitigated bore, yet they may be made of great value, if properly related to the topic of the day. This can be done as follows: Assign for special reports readings on two or three of the sub-topics in the day's lesson topic on which the text has little or no material; have these prepared very carefully; when each of the sub-topics on which reading has been assigned is up for discussion, simply call on the students to recite who you know are prepared best because of their special readings. In the review, hold the whole class responsible for all the work of each recitation. It is the writer's opinion that outside reading not utilized in the daily recitations is usually a bore, and consequently does more harm than good. It is also his opinion that it is quite impossible to apply the principle of progress within the subject of high school history if the pupil has no book other than his text to read. In fact, he is almost to the point of saying that where nothing else is possible let the history give way to subjects that can be successfully taught through the use of no other material than that found in the text.

In conclusion, the writer wishes to register his belief that progress within the subject of history can be

secured in any one or all of the following ways: (1) By the teacher's method of procedure in teaching the subject; (2) by a close organization of topics presented in two or more of the cycles so that a higher type of ability will be demanded at each level; (3) by an organization and selection of the topics in each cycle so that there will be little or no repetition, thus making it possible for the child in the seventh grade to study one set of topics relative to the Revolution-

ary War, the high school senior another set, and the college student another, all so organized that the second cycle could not be done successfully without a knowledge of the first, and the last without a knowledge of the first two. While we are waiting for co-operative effort to secure progress through these last two methods, the teacher will have to secure this much-to-be-desired result through her method of procedure day by day and term by term.<sup>7</sup>

## Testing Results in History Teaching

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The thoroughness and efficiency of history teaching is tested finally in the ease and success with which pupils meet situations in the social experiences of maturity. The tests of life are constant, difficult and potent for good and evil. The tests which teachers and pupils apply in school should be such as prewise as closely as possible the tests of daily duty and opportunity in later life. They should be type and prophecy of those recurring throughout maturity, whereby circumstances portray the quality of soul in men and women, make clear the measure in which they meet the demand of their day. Examinations are not primarily to measure either the efficiency of teachers or the cleverness of pupils; they are to warn both that part of the foundation for living has been faultily laid, or to give assurance of its solidity and encourage to further progress.

### TESTING BY EXAMINATION.

There are other forms of test besides the time-honored one of formal examination, but none which, on the whole, compares with it in sureness and helpfulness. The sureness and helpfulness, however, depend upon two things: the nature of the preparation made by the students, and the kind of questions in the test; and both are clearly governed by the results which the teacher has in mind when he directs the learning process which later is to be tested.

We may say that the three great aims of history teaching are:

I. An equipment of facts, so arranged and memorized as to be readily and constantly at the command of the learner for practical purposes.

II. Reliable historical judgment, which is the final result of

- a. The fundamental fact-knowledge.
- b. Ability to differentiate the factors in a given fact-group.
- c. Ability to compare and contrast facts, and to select them with reference to given relations or characteristics.
- d. Ability to evaluate facts.

e. Ability to abstract and generalize.

f. Ability to trace causal relations.

g. Ability to apply known facts to new situations.

III. A socialized attitude toward humanity.

The accomplishment of these aims is a progressive and cumulative process. The fundamental thing is the acquisition of facts; the thinking and emotional elements of history-learning must follow this primary, absolutely necessary first step. It follows, then, that in the first grades the history-learning process is very largely one of fact-learning, and that as children grow older, as their powers develop, there should be more and more of that practice in thinking which is involved in the attaining of what we call historical judgment. The teacher of history in any grade of a school system should know and feel keenly the stage in the whole process which his own pupils have reached, and give lessons and tests which are aimed to develop a due increase in the thinking, idealizing and motivating powers of those pupils.

This necessity for continuity in the long history-learning process is the chief reason for the need of a supervisor of history in every school system, who shall see the long process as a unit of growth, find weak places and suggest means for strengthening them, and apply whatever methods may be needed to make the whole process well-balanced and successful in the end. No course, however logically planned and however complete on paper, can be maximally successful without this personal supervision; for there must be an intelligent and devoted direction of the manifold adjustments and minor changes which insure the well-rounded course and final achievement of good results.

To return to the question of history tests: There is a certain legitimate stimulation of effort resulting from the constant possibility of the "sprung" test—the unannounced quiz which approximates the situation of life's chance demands for information. Most teachers wisely use these tests, short and brisk and centered about one topic at a time, almost daily in connection with drill and review. But the formal examination, coming at stated intervals or after the completion of given units of the work, may be used to stimulate review and organization on the pupil's part to an extent which in itself justifies this type of test.

<sup>7</sup> For two stimulating and suggestive articles on "Gradation of High School Work in History," by G. A. Washburn, of Columbus, O., and E. E. Smith, of Youngstown, see "The Ohio History Teachers' Journal," No. 3, November, 1916.



School children are so human that without the incentive of an impending test they will rarely make the effort to recanvass in its entirety the material on any subject. Few grown people will do this; few teachers, for instance. And yet without a comprehensive, well-knit, unified and logical review the material mastered in sections fails of thorough and permanent mastery, and so of later usefulness to the learner.

History test questions should try either the mastery of facts, the ability to think, or the degree of socialization of attitude reached; or they may test two or three of these at once. The three varieties of questions should be used in the proportion suggested by the maturity of the student and the stage of development he has reached. Pupils in the lower grades, or those in upper grades who have missed thorough preparation at first, should have a majority of questions testing conventional preparation, fact-knowledge; those of maturer years and thought a goodly number of those which test their powers of conclusion and the socialization of their attitude, without a neglect of the more thorough and detailed mastery of facts which should come with a second or a third study of any period of history.

Incidentally, a history examination should test the fundamental habits of neatness, accuracy, speed and good form as rigidly as the examination in any other subject. Ragged margins, careless punctuation and bad spelling are offenses that should be marked as sternly and corrected as carefully in history papers as they are in English papers, and that accuracy of expression which requires concise and correct sentence structure as a medium, should be one of the first outcomes of the clear-cut thinking which history study subtends.

To illustrate the requirements of adequate test, three sets of questions are given below which are suitable respectively for fifth grade, eighth grade and senior high school classes. They are all designed to measure the efficiency of instruction and the success of the pupils' preparation for social living, in the study of the settlement of the Atlantic Coast colonies.

Note that in these questions, there is a progression in the requirement of fact-knowledge, which is tested sometimes directly, sometimes indirectly. In the first set of three, the fifth grade question asks for such a statement of the immediate facts of the discovery as these pupils may be supposed to have mastered (but note also that they are required to marshal their facts and tell their story without any detailed questioning; they must organize their simple material and tell their story without suggestion of topics or order from the teacher); in the eighth grade, the scope of knowledge is increased to include the whole series of enterprises contemporaneous with Columbus' discovery, and there is added a very simple test of ability to explain causes. In the high school the scope of knowledge tested includes the European background of American history, the facts of the discovery, and a more advanced test of power to trace relationship.

In the fourth set of three questions, that for the

fifth grade is very concrete, a simple test of the memorization of easily-imaged units. In the eighth grade there is required an ability to trace relationships and make conclusions, based upon a fuller knowledge of facts than is necessary for answering the fifth grade question. In the high school the concrete problem has become generalized and is expressed in terms not used in the lower classes; while the illustrations required measure the increased mastery of fact. The fifth and sixth questions for high school students test the development of ideas of ethics and knowledge of world conditions not possible to younger children; the seventh is a fairly stiff test both of organized fact and of power to trace causes.

The third question of the second set of three is an exception to the general rule that questions for advanced pupils should test thinking power and the development of ethical standards. This one tries memory and skill, with no call for the exercise of historical judgment. It is thought that the power to image and reproduce the eastern coast-line, to draw boundaries and insert the historical data called for, constitute a fair requirement for high school students. Not every question for advanced students is a judgment question, although a majority of them should be. The eighth set of questions involves a sequence in selective thinking, one of the steps in the development of historical judgment. Other forms of questions may easily be devised for testing ability to differentiate, compare and contrast, evaluate, abstract and generalize, and trace causal relations.

It is, then, the aim of careful teachers to test for those phases of the cumulative process of history-learning which belong to the stage of progress of the class in question. In the lower grades there will always be a large proportion of questions on facts, and these facts will be the concrete, imaged, outstanding ones of notable events, pageant-like action, vivid personalities, ideal-forming deeds—those fundamental actual tangible things that are the outward signs of changing human life. Comparison, evaluation, generalization, application, are encouraged but not to any great degree required; for their time is to come. As the children grow older and enter the great disciplinary period of pre-adolescence, they are led to increase and ramify and organize this fact-equipment, and also gradually, growing still older, to think for themselves and to form judgments. With adolescence there is an access of ability along all lines, but especially of the intellectual and emotional powers; and therefore the appropriate tests include those of all phases of history-learning, culminating in that of socialization of attitude.

In an adequate academic test of results in history therefore the first essential is that all the objects of history learning be kept in view. The second is that these various elements be proportioned according to the maturity and stage of development of the pupils. A third is that the test be severe enough and thorough enough to give dependable results. A fourth, not yet possible because we have no such standards as have

## FIFTH GRADE.

1. Tell the story of the discovery of America.
2. Write in three columns the names of the thirteen colonies, date of settlement, and reason for the coming of this group of settlers.
3. How did the people of New England live, about 1700? The people of Virginia?
4. What kind of money was used in Virginia? Where were the books, glass and furniture used there made? Describe the roads.
5. What were the Navigation Acts? Why did England make these acts?
6. Describe a Yankee ship of the eighteenth century? Where did these ships go, and what cargoes did they carry?
7. How were the colonies governed before the Revolution? Are the people along the Atlantic Coast governed in the same way to-day?
8. From this list of names, select and check those who changed their homes because of religious persecution:

Patrick Henry.  
Anne Hutchinson.  
John Cabot.  
Sir Francis Drake.  
Henry Hudson.  
Roger Williams.  
George Calvert.  
James Oglethorpe.  
Eliza Lucas.  
James Otis.

## EIGHTH GRADE.

1. Sketch briefly but accurately the famous voyages of the fifteenth and early sixteenth centuries. Which of these interest Americans most, and why?
2. Select three typical colonies, and tell the most important facts about their settlement.
3. Would you have preferred to live in Massachusetts or Virginia in 1700? Give clear reasons for your preference.
4. What did the people of New York and Virginia know about each other? Why? Why did the Virginians sell their tobacco and buy their supplies in England, instead of going to New York or Boston for them?
5. What was England's colonial policy during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries? Was it a wise one? Why?
6. Describe the sea traffic of the Yankees in the eighteenth century. What was its effect upon the life of New England? Was New England affected by the slave trade?
7. What different forms of colonial government were to be found in 1750? Where was representative government most fully developed? Why?
8. Check the names of those men who helped the cause of American independence, and star those who hindered it:  
George Rogers Clark.  
Samuel Adams.  
John Dickinson.  
Lord Chatham.  
Lord North.  
General Gage.  
General Gates.  
General Howe.  
General Burgoyne.  
General Greene.  
Henry Clay.  
Sir William Berkeley.  
Benjamin Franklin.

## SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL.

1. What forces led to the discovery of America? Relate the facts concerning it. What relation had the Renaissance and the Reformation to this discovery?
2. Draw an outline map of the Atlantic Coast, noting upon it the boundaries of colonies founded there, first settlements in each, and date of settlement.
3. How was life in New England and Virginia respectively affected by the two elements of religion and climate? Where was the Roundhead element found? The Cavalier? Why?
4. Compare colonial economic conditions in Virginia with those of New York; with ours now. Give specific illustrations.
5. What was the origin of the Navigation Acts? Had England a right to enforce these acts? How did her economists justify her course? Compare her policy with Canada and Australia to-day.
6. Draw a map showing the trade routes of New England shipping in the eighteenth century. Can any trade of to-day be compared with this? What were the effects upon the relations of England and Spain? Was the trade ethically justifiable? Why?
7. Trace accurately the development of representative government in the colonies to 1776. What factors contributed to this development?
8. Make a list of the names of twenty men who were leaders in American colonization. Indicate which were actuated by religious, which by financial, and which by political motives.

been worked out for studies of more definite content, is that the response received shall be compared to a norm by which definite measurement of results achieved may be made. Such measurements will without question be devised in time; for although the peculiarly cultural and almost incalculable nature of history and literature have prevented, to the present time, the formation of standards for measuring efficiency in their teaching, specialists are coming surely to a more scientific knowledge of the factors involved, and this knowledge will bring in time such means of test as shall make it possible to judge progress in history as surely, if less mathematically, as in spelling or arithmetic.

## TESTING BY PROBLEMS.

Another method of testing results than the time-honored and excellent one of formal examination, is that of assigned problems. The problem-test should

be used in goodly proportion to the examination-test, for while it may (or may not) involve less the memory and the ability to organize, it demands far more of personal initiative, a quality which traditional school methods have notoriously neglected. It is especially useful for the purpose of testing the mastery of the tools of learning—the use of books, the reading of maps and diagrams, and the correlation of such already-acquired skills as, for instance, arithmetic and reading. Problems, like examination questions, should be graded in nature as well as in difficulty, those for less advanced pupils involving chiefly a discovery of new specific facts, while those for advanced students may include the discovery of more obscure information, the application of known facts to new situations, generalization from given data, the comparison of results from a series of causes, or even questions of judgment involving a test of ethical ideas. It is difficult to make problems for a “typical” set of

pupils; but a series of problems intended for fifth, eighth, and twelfth grade classes respectively, in a fairly typical city school, is given below:

**Fifth grade:** The land route to Kentucky through Cumberland Gap was hard and long, whereas floating down the Ohio was comparatively easy. Why, then, did the Kentucky settlers go by land to their new homes?

**Another:** Our text<sup>1</sup> says that "For a long time after emigrants from England had made their homes in the Carolinas, a large area between South Carolina and Florida remained unsettled." Since this was good land, and there were many people coming from England during this time, how do you explain this?

**Eighth grade:** In 1754, when the French and English were fighting for the possession of North America, there were about 1,160,000 people in the English colonies, and only about 80,000 French people in all the French settlements,<sup>2</sup> who had, however, some Indians to help them. (The Iroquois were the Allies of the English.) Why did not all the Englishmen join together and end the war at once, instead of fighting on until 1758? Why did England have to send over soldiers to help the colonies?

**Another:** Just before the Revolution there were 164 Anglican parishes and 91 ministers in Virginia; at the close of the Revolution there were only 69 parishes and 28 ministers. Why was this?<sup>3</sup>

**High school seniors:** make a graph showing the development of representative government in the thirteen colonies, and one showing the development of religious toleration. If the growth of representative government be rightly considered an index to the love of civil liberty, is there any visible relation between (the love of) civil liberty and religious liberty in the colonies?

**Another:** The United States was so ungrateful to Silas Deane, the commissioner who secured French aid for the colonies in 1778, as to drive him into bankruptcy. How and why? Who was to blame?<sup>4</sup>

#### TESTING BY THE WRITING OF HISTORY.

A third method of test which has been little used, and which should be used at any time sparingly and with good judgment, is that of requiring the construction or the reconstruction of history. By the reconstruction of history is meant the writing of a unit of considerable scope without the guidance of any questions or directions. This is really different from the oral recitation upon a large unit because such a recitation may be interrupted at any point when an essential misconception is evident; whereas in the written test there is no correction at the time. Nevertheless

there should be occasional examinations in which no further direction is given than that of indicating a comprehensive subject—such as, for instance, that of "English Constitutional Development" or "The Unification of Italy." Probably the average examination errs upon the side of giving too many and too specific aids to the students. There may be an adequate memory test in the detailed examination, but there is scarcely any test of that organizing ability which history study should help to develop. Of course these big-topic tests should increase in number as students grow older and think better; by the senior year in high school at least half of the examinations given should be of this topical type, and they should be graded for comprehensiveness and organization as well as for fact-presentation.

The writing of original history is the last step in testing the results of history teaching, except such as fall outside the sphere of direct measurement. It makes proof of powers of observation, collection, selection, judgment, organization, rather than of memorization. It draws strongly upon the initiative and imagination, as well as upon the technical skill, of the student; and for that reason it is valuable as a counter-emphasis for the older conventional examination method, which stresses the fundamental fact-learning powers predominantly. It correlates easily with work in composition, and has other values which will readily appear to thoughtful teachers; and it is urged that it be used occasionally for its stimulating effect upon the interest and ambitions of students, as well as a test of developing judgment.

Here are some exercises for use in the type-grades already referred to:

#### Fifth grade:

1. The story of the establishment of Garden Day in our school.
2. How we celebrated a Sane Fourth in ———.
3. What my grandmother's letters show about pioneer life.

#### Eighth grade:

1. The coming of the telephone to ——— County.
2. The campaign of 1860 in ——— County.
3. How we built our new schoolhouse.

#### High school seniors:

1. A history of the local church which I attend.
2. How our family came west.
3. The forces which decided the late election.

#### INCIDENTAL TESTS.

Of far greater value to the student than any formal test that can be devised, are such incidental tests as may happen, or may skilfully be provided, to enable him to put to use the knowledge and powers he has gained. The use of historical facts in debates, essays, speeches, and daily conversation gives constant occasion for the best kind of test. That teacher who overhears his pupils citing facts learned in the history class in a lively argument on the play-ground or a political set-to in the cloak-room has a sudden access of love for his profession, and pride in the intrinsic

<sup>1</sup> Gordy, "Elementary History of the United States," 92.

<sup>2</sup> Parkman, "Montcalm and Wolfe," I, 20; Thwaites, "France in America," 128.

<sup>3</sup> Perry, "History of the Church of England," 614. These children had been reading Chapter XVII, "Religious and Moral Forces," in Coffin's "Building of the Nation."

<sup>4</sup> Perhaps the clearest short explanation of this incident is found in Channing's "Students' History of the United States," 211.

quality of his work, which he never knows when the same boys and girls make an average of 90 in their examinations. The well-organized school affords many opportunities for such informal and constant tests, which approximate the daily trial of the later and wider life of the students, more nearly if less thoroughly than the most scientifically devised questions can.

One of the real tests of work well done is the unconscious quality of the product. How countless are the smiles, often a bit grim, with which teachers have listened to their own sentiments, their favorite epigrams, their ideals and conclusions and propositions, repeated from the commencement platform or in the school debate by students who are sure they thought

these things out for themselves! Many a teacher has been inwardly exasperated or amused to see the triumphant career of his own ideas, perhaps even his own words, in the mouth of some former pupil with a gift for public presentation; and has reached the grace of reconciliation through the reflection that probably he too stole the idea or the words in the days of his youth, from some older thinker who led him in the fields of thought. There are few new things in the world, and few indeed who have never fallen into the coils of unconscious plagiarism; fewer still who give to men a fresh truth—which is reason enough for our gratitude when Fate gives it to us to pass on into new eras and areas of influence upon conduct, any old truth we ourselves may know.

## A Method of Teaching Practical Civics

BY E. E. PATTON, PRINCIPAL OF HIGH SCHOOL, KNOXVILLE, TENN.

Our school is managed under the group or home-room system; each teacher is assigned his recitation room and the pupils are apportioned among the various teachers. When a pupil arrives in the morning he puts his wraps in his locker and reports to his group room where the teacher keeps a record of all absences and tardies. This much is necessary in explanation of my subject.

On the 6th of November, 1916, we held an election in all of the twenty-two group rooms of the school. These rooms were made to represent states in the government and were given the names of their various teachers instead of taking names of particular states of the Union. Candidates for electors favorable to the different candidates for president were put forward in all of these different "states." The election was regularly held, with printed ballots, etc. Instead of having the customary election clerks and other officers of election, poll-tax receipts, registration certificates, the teachers made appropriate talks on these various things used in regular elections.

The result of this election was tabulated and sent into the office in the same manner that returns are sent in to the Secretary of State in the States. A correct list of the successful candidates was kept and on the second Monday in January the duly chosen electors for the different "states" met in a "room in their state capitol" and there organized by electing a chairman, secretary, and messenger. When the organization had been perfected they cast their ballots for the men of their choice for president and vice-president, made out the three lists as required by law and sent two of them to the "presiding officer of the United States Senate" who in this instance was the head of the Commercial Department of the school. It might be well to state here that his pupils do not meet with the rest of the school in the regular morning chapel exercises so that his room could very well represent the Senate and the other part of the school represent the House of Representatives. The third list that is to be left with the "nearest

federal district judge" was turned in to the clerk to the principal.

Before these electors met for the purpose of casting their votes they received regular certificates of election from their respective group teachers who impersonated the governors of states.

These certificates read as follows:

"To the Honorables (here the names of the electors were inserted): It appearing from the official returns and certificates on file in the office of the Secretary of State, that at the general election held in all of the precincts of the several counties of the State of ..... on the 7th day of November, 1916, you were legally and constitutionally elected an elector for president and vice-president from the State at large of ....., this certificate is therefore issued as an evidence of your election as such elector.

.....  
Governor.

.....  
Secretary of State.

This 6th day of December, 1916."

On the morning of the second Wednesday in February, 1917, enough seats were vacated in the regular chapel hall to accommodate the entire Commercial Department. The main body of the school was called the "House" while the Commercial Department represented the "Senate;" a sergeant-at-arms had been appointed by the Speaker of the House and he took his position at the main entrance to the House of Representatives. When the vice-president, accompanied by the Senate and their various officers, appeared on the stairway, the sergeant-at-arms of the House announced in a loud and dignified voice, "The Vice-President and the Senate of the United States" and escorted the Vice-President to the Speaker's rostrum where he took his seat on the right of the Speaker. The Vice-President called the two houses to order, called for the tellers, previously appointed, to come

to the desk, opened all of the lists and submitted them for inspection to the tellers. When all had been finished, the result was announced in regular order and the Vice-President declared the convention dissolved in the following words:

"This announcement of the state of the vote by the President of the Senate shall be deemed a sufficient declaration of the elected President and Vice-President of the United States, each for the term beginning March 4th, 1917, and shall be entered, together with a list of the votes, on the Journals of the Senate and the House of Representatives.

"Gentlemen of the Senate and House of Representatives, the purpose for which this convention assembled having been accomplished, the presiding officer dissolves this joint convention, and the Senate will retire to their Chamber."

The election, the meeting of the electors in the different States and the counting of the votes in the "House" was all carried out in the regular form insofar as it was possible to do this.

Our local papers gave us space in their columns to describe the event, and the opinion of the teachers was unanimous that it had been most helpful and instructive to both pupils and teachers in their work in school.

Below is the report from the "Sentinel," of Knoxville, on the whole procedure:

#### VOTE CANVASSED AT HIGH SCHOOL.

The senate was represented by the commercial department pupils, while those in the lower study hall were the house of representatives.

The ceremony was carried out just exactly as it was done by Congress at Washington on Wednesday.

A joint session of the "senate" and "house" was held in the lower study hall.

Prof. S. A. Lewis, teacher of the commercial department, impersonated the vice-president.

Prof. Patton represented Champ Clark, while Joe Long was sergeant-at-arms for the house.

As the "senate" marched down the stairs from its room on the second floor, Sergeant-at-Arms Long announced the arrival of that dignified assemblage, whereupon the "house" arose to its feet. Prof. Lewis was escorted to the seat of honor to the right of Prof. Patton. The tellers were also assigned to seats on the rostrum. After all had been seated, the vice-president proceeded to deliver the certificates of election, one by one in the alphabetical order of the states, who read and counted them.

Ned Dow and Francis Stewart, tellers for the house, were seated at one side of the vice-president, and Carl Perrin and Harry McLean, tellers for the senate, at the other side. Each couple was given a certificate, each group of electors at their meeting Monday, January 8, having prepared two certificates for the vice-president, one of which was sent to him by a messenger and the other by mail, while a third one was turned over to the nearest United States district judge, who in Tennessee happened to be Judge E. T. Sanford, of Knoxville.

The election of the Knoxville High School students had been held on November 6 in each of the rooms. Girls, as well as boys, were allowed to vote in this election. The number of electors which could be elected by each group depended upon its size, just as the number of electors to which each state is entitled depends on its population. The number of electors elected by the high school groups ranged from three to seven.

Instead of being called the names of states, the groups took their state name from the name of their teacher. There were the states of Rice, Brown, Cain, Chavannes, Evans, French, Kennedy, Kurth, Lynn, Pendley, Plummer, Rogers, Siencknecht, Coe, Steele, Jobe, Lewis, Poteet, Reveley, Smith, Smyth and Stineman. The teachers were also governors.

After the last certificate had been handed to the tellers they announced that the result of the electoral vote was 117 for Wilson and three for Hughes. The state of Kurth had given three votes to Wilson and three for Hughes.

## Learning History by Doing

BY HELEN E. PURCELL, INSTITUTE FOR PUBLIC SERVICE, NEW YORK CITY.

Different types of history teaching were illustrated in two fifth-grade classes each studying the same topic—the invasion of Mexico by Cortez. The first class was droning out the story without interest and with but little understanding. A glance at the second class showed that interest was at white heat. As the visitor entered every pair of eyes flashed a welcome and every face lighted up at the opportunity to show what they had been doing.

At the moment the class was gathered about a sand table putting the finishing touches to a labor that had meant much work and thought. Instead of studying about Cortez and Mexico, these children had made Montezuma's City on the sand table with the temple and the market place. Bark canoes were in the water separating the island from the main land and gayly dressed Aztec warriors and maidens walked in the

streets and ascended the steps of the great temple. The island upon which the city was located had been built of gravel and stones, with a thin layer of sand; the buildings had been made of clay, and painted cardboard figures provided realistic people. Water flowed around the city and even without the glowing faces of the class it was an illuminating and interesting piece of work.

To accomplish this, these children had examined many references, planned the size of their island and buildings, and had finally built the city; although, as one boy naively informed the visitor, "there were many, many more houses and people in the real city than we have room for in our city." In talking about Cortez and Montezuma these children evinced historical interest and intelligence. For them the acts of these men had a real background, and as they talked

they pointed out buildings and locations in the city connected with the events described.

Another example of learning by doing was illustrated by a class studying Magellan's trip around the world. In this case "doing" consisted in making water-color pictures of the principal events in the voyage. The fact that a finished volume of these pictures in which the work of each child would be represented was to be given to a former teacher as a Christmas gift furnished an additional motive for this piece of work.

Before deciding to make these pictures the class had read and discussed the story. Afterwards thirty subjects for pictures were suggested by the children and placed upon the board by the teacher. Later the class reduced this number to fifteen by elimination of those subjects that did not appear to be of importance in telling the main points in the story. Each pupil then chose three pictures to paint.

The real work then began. Ships, costumes, methods of fighting, etc., appropriate to the period and the events in the story had to be studied, but interest never flagged and a set of pictures that expressed feeling and knowledge was the result.

Other types of learning history by doing include dramatization, "period" parties, making of outlines and the writing of original stories based upon historical incidents. In fact, opportunities for live teaching of this subject are limited only by the outlook of the teacher.

#### HISTORY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATIONS.

Additions to and corrections of the following list of associations are requested by the editor of the MAGAZINE:

Alabama History Teachers' Association—Secretary, D. G. Chase, Birmingham.

American Historical Association—Secretary, Waldo G. Leland, Washington, D. C.

California History Teachers' Association—Chairman, Clifford E. Lowell, Berkeley.

History Teachers' Association of Cincinnati, O.—Secretary, J. W. Ayres, High School, Madisonville, O.

History Section of Colorado Teachers' Association; Western Division, chairman, Mrs. K. A. Morrison, Gunnison; Southern Division, chairman, Max Morton, Pueblo; Eastern Division, chairman, Archibald Taylor, Longmont.

The [English] Historical Association—Secretary, Miss M. B. Curran, 22 Russell Square, London, W. C.

History Teachers' Association of Florida—President, Miss Caroline M. Brevard, Woman's College, Tallahassee; secretary, Miss E. M. Williams, Jacksonville.

Indiana History Teachers' Association—President, J. V. Masters, Rushville; secretary, Charles H. Money, Indianapolis.

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Jasper County, Mo., History Association—Secretary, Miss Elizabeth Peiffer, Carthage, Mo.

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Mississippi Valley Historical Association, Teachers' Sec-

tion—Chairman, A. O. Thomas, Lincoln, Neb.; secretary, Howard C. Hill, University of Chicago.

Missouri Association of Teachers of History and Government—Secretary, Jesse E. Wrench, Columbia, Mo.

Nebraska History Teachers' Association—Secretary, Julia M. Wort, Lincoln, Neb.

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History Teachers' Section of Association of High School Teachers of North Carolina—Chairman, Miss Catherine Albertson, Elizabeth City, N. C.

History, Civics and Social Science Section of North Dakota Educational Association—President, H. C. Fish, State Normal School, Minot; secretary, Miss Hazel Nielson, High School, Fargo.

Northwest Association of Teachers of History, Economics and Government—Secretary, Prof. L. T. Jackson, Pullman, Wash.

Ohio History Teachers' Association—Chairman, Wilbur H. Siebert, Ohio State University, Columbus; secretary, W. C. Harris, Ohio State University.

History Club of Ohio State University—Chairman, Florence E. Heyde, Columbus, O.

Political Science Club of students who have majored in history at Ohio State University.

Ontario (Canada) English and History Association—Secretary, J. F. Van Every, High School of Commerce, Toronto.

Pacific Coast Branch of American Historical Association—Secretary, Prof. W. A. Morris, Berkeley, Cal.

Rhode Island History Teachers' Association—Secretary, A. Howard Williamson, Technical High School, Providence, R. I.

Oklahoma History Teachers' Association—President, Prof. R. G. Sears, State Normal School, Ada; secretary, Miss Jeanette Gordon, High School, Oklahoma City.

South Dakota History Teachers' Association—Secretary, Edwin Ott, Sioux Falls, S. D.

Tennessee History Teachers' Association—Secretary-treasurer, Max Souby, Murfreesboro, Tenn.

Texas History Teachers' Section of the State Teachers' Association—President, Frederic Duncalf, Austin, Texas; secretary, L. F. McKay, Temple, Texas.

Twin City History Teachers' Association—President, Miss Medora Jordan, The Leamington, Minneapolis; secretary, Miss L. M. Ickler, 648 Delaware Avenue, St. Paul, Minn.

Virginia History Teachers' Section of Virginia State Teachers' Association—President, Prof. J. M. Lear, Farmville; secretary, Miss Zadie H. Smith, High School, Portsmouth, Va.

Teachers' Historical Association of Western Pennsylvania—Secretary, Anna Ankrom, 1108 Franklin Avenue, Wilkesburg, Pa.

West Virginia History Teachers' Association—President, Charles E. Hedrick, Glenville; secretary, Dora Newman, of Fairmont.

Wisconsin History Teachers' Association—Chairman, A. C. Kingsford, Baraboo High School; secretary, Miss Amelia C. Ford, Milwaukee-Downer College, Milwaukee.

## College Entrance Examination Board's Questions in History, 1917

By the kind permission of the secretary of the College Entrance Examination Board, Dr. Thomas S. Fiske, the *MAGAZINE* is enabled to print in full the Board's papers in history for the June and September examinations in 1917.  
—EDITOR.

### HISTORY A—ANCIENT HISTORY.

In each answer give dates.

#### PART I. (Required.)

1. Sketch the lives of any two of the following persons, selecting one from group (a) and one from group (b), and show, where possible, in what ways their lives affected their own and later times: (a) Alcibiades, Clisthenes, Cyrus the Great, Socrates; (b) Charlemagne, Constantine, Pyrrhus, St. Paul.

#### PART II. (Answer one question.)

2. Sketch the history of the Hebrew people from the time they settled in Canaan until their land became part of the Persian Empire.
3. What is the importance of the Phœnicians in history? Of what empires, up to 323 B. C., was Phœnicia successively a part?

#### PART III. (Answer one question.)

4. Describe the part taken by the Greek fleet in the struggle between Greece and Persia between 500 and 450 B. C. To what extent do you think it is true that "the struggle was one of the most momentous in all history"?
5. Tell what you can of the Achæan League. In what ways was it like, and in what unlike, our own union of states?
6. Describe the government of Athens, not including the government of the Athenian Empire, in the time of Pericles. What were its strong points and its weak points?

#### PART IV. (Answer one question.)

7. Tell the story of the political struggle which took place during the thirteen years after the death of Cæsar.
8. Name the Roman provinces at the end of the Republic. What were the evils in the social and political life of Rome at this time which were the result of her conquests outside of Italy?
9. Give an account of the Visigothic invasion of the Roman Empire. At what earlier times had the Roman world been threatened by Germanic invasions? Why did the Romans fail to check the Visigothic invasions?

#### PART V. (Answer one question.)

10. Describe carefully the Athenian Acropolis at the time of the Peloponnesian War.
11. Describe the general character of the works of two of the following authors: Cicero, Tacitus, and Virgil. With what Greek author may each of the two names you have chosen be most fitly compared?

#### PART VI. (Required.)

12. Write brief notes on five of the following terms, showing that you have a definite knowledge of their origin and meaning: Academy, bishop of Rome, divination, Epicurean, Forum, martyr, Nicene Creed, vandalism.

#### PART VII. (Required.)

13. (a) Mark on map 115b the name and location of five of the following places:

Site of the Great Pyramids,  
Home of Odysseus,  
Place of the death of Leonidas,  
Chief city of the Phœnicians,  
An important Greek city in Italy,  
Birthplace of Jesus,  
Route of Xerxes' fleet.

(b) Mark on map 111b the name and location of five of the following places:

Home of the Samnites,  
First naval battle in the Punic Wars,  
Site of Varus' defeat in 9 A. D.,  
Chief Greek city in Sicily,  
A province in Europe added to the Roman Empire by Trajan,  
Meeting-place of the Church Council in 325 A. D.,  
A battle where Attila was defeated.

### HISTORY B—MEDIEVAL AND MODERN EUROPEAN HISTORY.

In each answer give dates.

#### PART I. (Answer one question.)

1. Give an account of the Huns in the fourth and fifth centuries—their characteristics, migrations, and influence.
2. Describe (a) Charlemagne's personal character, (b) his relations with the Papacy, and (c) his system of government.

#### PART II. (Answer one question.)

3. What were the ideals and services of the Franciscans? Compare with these the ideals and services of the Dominicans.
4. Explain fully in what respects the sixteenth century was an era of revolution.

#### PART III. (Answer one question.)

5. What were the aims and achievements of two of the following Popes: Gregory I, Gregory VII, Boniface VIII, Julius II, Leo XIII?
6. Write fully on one of the following men: Dante, Calvin, Cavour.
7. What are the characteristics of medieval Gothic architecture? Name at least one medieval example of Gothic architecture.

#### PART IV. (Answer one question.)

8. Explain fully what is meant by "spirit of nationality." Give at least two examples to illustrate how this spirit of nationality has been a factor in historical changes during the last hundred years.
9. What of permanent importance did Napoleon I accomplish for France?

#### PART V. (Required.)

10. Write brief notes on five of the following topics: Dreyfus, Galileo, Giotto, Parlement of Paris; Reichstag, Robespierre, Trafalgar, "Open Door" policy, Ulrich von Hutten.

#### PART VI. (Answer two parts only of question 11.)

11. (a) Mark on map 111b the brief trade routes of Europe in the fifteenth century and the name and location of the six cities which were most important as trade centers.



(b) Mark on map 111b five of the following places: Adrianople, Belgrade, Bucharest, Montenegro, Salonika, Sofia, Transylvania.

(c) Mark on map 111b ten of the following places: East Prussia, Normandy, Bohemia, Tuscany, Corsica, Aragon, Crecy, Poitiers, Valmy, Corunna, Trafalgar, Solferino, Heligoland.

### HISTORY C—ENGLISH HISTORY.

In each answer give dates.

#### PART I. (Required.)

1. Write on two of the following men: Geoffrey Chaucer, Walter Raleigh, Christopher Wren, Horatio Nelson, Cecil Rhodes.

#### PART II. (Answer one question.)

2. What remains or influences were left in England as a result of the Roman occupation?
3. Write on the character and work of one monarch and of one churchman of the Anglo-Saxon period.
4. Describe the forms of trial which were used in England before the reign of Henry II. What new form of trial was introduced in his reign? Why is this form of trial now considered so important?

#### PART III. (Answer one question.)

5. Explain the terms of the union of England and Scotland, and of England and Ireland.
6. Under what two sovereigns did the English Parliament make its greatest gains in power? Explain what the gains were in each case.
7. What reforms were made in England in the nineteenth century in the interests of the laboring classes?

#### PART IV. (Answer one question.)

8. What part did the elder Pitt play in the development of the British Empire?
9. What different types of colonies has England at the present day? Explain how each type is governed, and mention an example of each.

#### PART V. (Required.)

10. Write brief notes upon five of the following topics: Act of Supremacy, Asquith, Boers, Coffee-houses, Corn Laws, Methodists, Statute of Labourers, Triple Entente.

#### PART VI. (Answer one part only of question 11.)

11. (a) Mark on map 111b (a) the names and boundaries of the continental lands in English hands in 1360 A. D., and (b) five of the following places: Crecy, Poitiers, Blenheim, La Hogue, Trafalgar, Heligoland, Mons.  
(b) Mark on map 120b the name and location of eight of the following places:  
England's oldest university,  
William the Conqueror's first battle in England,  
A victory of the Scots over the English in the reign of Edward II,  
William III's victory over James II and the Irish,  
Church Council in 664 A. D.,  
An important naval base on the south coast of England,  
An important road in Roman Britain,  
An important cathedral town in England,  
An important cotton manufacturing town in England,  
A county famous for its tin mines.

### HISTORY D—AMERICAN HISTORY AND CIVIL GOVERNMENT.

In each answer give dates.

#### PART I. (Answer one question.)

1. Give an account of the settlement and history of Massachusetts Bay Colony to the middle of the seventeenth century.
2. Sketch the career of George Washington before the outbreak of the American Revolution.
3. Give the substance of two acts of the British Parliament in the decade before the American Revolution which contributed to cause the revolt of the colonies. How did the colonists show their resentment toward each of these acts?

#### PART II. (Answer one question.)

4. Sketch the public career of one of the following men, showing how his life has influenced the history of our country: John Quincy Adams, Daniel Webster, John C. Calhoun, William H. Seward.
5. How was the foreign trade of the United States affected by conditions in Europe during Jefferson's administration? How did his administration attempt to protect this trade?
6. What were four important steps in the development of the slavery controversy from the end of the Mexican War to the outbreak of the Civil War? Explain the significance of each of the four.

#### PART III. (Answer two questions.)

7. Tell the story of the Gettysburg campaign. What was its significance?
8. What were the causes and results of the war between the United States and Spain?
9. Compare the character of the immigration into the United States during the decade 1850-1860 with that during the decade 1900-1910. What restrictions are placed upon immigration into the United States at the present time?
10. What policy in regard to the Western Hemisphere was outlined by Monroe in 1823? On what occasions since the Civil War has the United States applied this policy in its foreign relations?

#### PART IV. (Answer one question.)

11. By what provisions does the Constitution of the United States attempt to make the Senate "a more permanent, conservative, and dignified body" than the House of Representatives? How and when have the original provisions in regard to the Senate been modified by amendment?
12. Could a President be elected by a minority of the total number of persons voting at a presidential election? Give your reasons.

#### PART V. (Required.)

13. Write brief notes on five of the following topics: Caucus, Cumberland Road, The Federalist, Mugwump, Pan-American Movement, Progressive Party, Rough Riders, Tippecanoe.

#### PART VI. (Answer two parts only of question 14.)

14. On map 175b:  
(a) Name and shade the slave states which did not secede from the Union at the time of the Civil War.  
(b) Indicate the routes traversed by De Soto, Coronado, and Lewis and Clark.  
(c) Name and locate four of the following places:  
Place of Burgoyne's surrender,  
Place of John Brown's raid on federal property,

First permanent English settlement in America,  
 First state west of the Mississippi admitted into the Union,  
 Western land claims ceded by Connecticut after the Revolution,  
 One state west of the Rocky Mountains which voted for Taft in 1908 but for Wilson in 1916.

### COMPREHENSIVE EXAMINATION—HISTORY.

Thursday, June 21, 1917.

Selecting one of the five divisions, answer fully six questions as there required. Take about two hours of your time for these six questions.

If you have studied in your school course only one of these divisions, answer one, or two, or three additional questions from that division.

If, on the other hand, you have studied two or more of these divisions, answer three additional questions not in the division first selected.

Give dates, or approximate dates, where they are needed.

#### DIVISION I: ANCIENT HISTORY.

##### GROUP I. (Answer one question only.)

1. Write fully on any two of the following persons: Cyrus the Great, Themistocles, Plato, Aratus.
2. Tell the story of Sparta's struggle with the Persian Empire (400-387 B. C.).

##### GROUP II. (Answer one question only.)

3. Write fully on any two of the following persons: Hannibal, Pompey, Tiberius, Justinian.
4. Sketch the history of Rome from the battle of Pharsalus (48 B. C.) to the battle of Actium (31 B. C.).

##### GROUP III. (Answer one question only.)

5. Discuss the accuracy of the following statement: "The Romans were never a commercial people."
6. Discuss the accuracy of the following statement: "No single personality, excepting the carpenter's son of Nazareth, has done so much to make the world of civilization we live in what it is as Alexander of Macedon."

##### GROUP IV. (Answer two parts only of question 7.)

7. Mark on map 113b or 135b (giving both location and name):
  - (a) the routes of the Ten Thousand of Xerxes' invasion of Greece, of Hannibal's march from Spain to Cannae; locate on the map the chief battlefields on the line of each route;
  - (b) the frontier of the Carthaginian Empire at the outbreak of the First Punic War, the frontier of the Roman Empire at the end of the Second Punic War, the frontier between Rome and the northern barbarians at the accession of Hadrian;
  - (c) Lusitania, Assyria, Moesia, the migration of the Visigoths.

##### GROUP V. (Answer question 8 and either 9 or 10.)

8. Write notes on five of the following topics: Paleolithic (Rough Stone) Age, Assyrian Atrocities, the History of Herodotus, the differences between the Greek and Roman Religion, *comitia tributa*, the Prætorian Prefect, the Meditations of Marcus Aurelius.
9. Name with a descriptive note the chief works of Greek sculpture that you could identify if they were shown to you. Tell to what period each belongs.
10. Name with a descriptive note the chief works of Roman architecture that you could identify if they were shown to you. Tell to what period each belongs.

#### DIVISION II: MEDIEVAL AND MODERN HISTORY.

##### GROUP I. (Answer one question only.)

1. Write fully on any two of the following persons: Peter the Hermit, Galileo, Charles the Fifth of Germany, Loyola.
2. State the causes for the rise of the Italian cities. For what was Genoa noted? Venice? Florence? Into what two great political parties did their citizens divide?

##### GROUP II. (Answer one question only.)

3. Why was the "Holy Alliance" formed? Who were its members? What did it attempt to do in Italy? In Spain? In America?
4. By what means did Richelieu create a strong France?
5. Give an account of the wars Russia has fought in her endeavor to get seaports and the results of each war.

##### GROUP III. (Answer one question only.)

6. How do you account for the "armed peace" of Europe, 1878-1914?
7. Compare the work of Cavour with that of Bismarck.

##### GROUP IV. (Answer two parts only of question 8.)

8. Mark on map 82b or 112b (giving both location and name):
  - (a) the Empire of Charlemagne after 800;
  - (b) the countries under Napoleon's control, 1810;
  - (c) Waterloo, Sedan, Campo-Formio, Clermont, Aix-la-Chapelle.

##### GROUP V. (Answer question 9 and either 10 or 11.)

9. Write briefly on five of the following topics: Diet of Worms, Truce of God, the struggle over investitures, Partition of Poland, Michael Angelo, Scholasticism, Oath of the Tennis Court.
10. What were the medieval guilds? What advantages did they bring to their members? Where did they flourish? What role did they play in town government?
11. Trace the origin and development of monasticism. How was this institution helpful to medieval society?

#### DIVISION III: MODERN EUROPEAN HISTORY.

##### GROUP I. (Answer one question only.)

1. Write fully on any two of the following persons: Charles James Fox, Marie Antoinette, Cavour, Louis Blanc.
2. Explain enlightened despotism and illustrate your answer from the work of as many enlightened despots as you can.
3. What series of events led up to the declaration of war by France against the European states in 1792?

##### GROUP II. (Answer one question only.)

4. Give an account of the principal events in the history of Japan since the Mikado became the real ruler of this State.
5. How did the British government become more democratic during the nineteenth century? Describe each step in the process.
6. Write a short essay upon the war of 1914, as suggested by the following words: Hindenburg, Joffre, Gallipoli, Anzac, the Marne, Liège, the Dobrudja, Venizelos, Lloyd-George, Douaumont, the Carpathians, conscientious objector, the Sussex, Bethmann-Hollweg, Erzzerum. (It is not necessary that all these words should be introduced.)

##### GROUP III. (Answer one question only.)

7. Discuss as fully as possible the influence of the lack of sea power upon the policy of Napoleon I.

8. What is meant by a policy of imperialism? To what extent have France, Great Britain, and Germany been under the influence of this policy since 1850? Illustrate your answer from the history of one of these countries.

9. What motives had Great Britain for entering the war of 1914 which the United States did not have?

GROUP IV. (Answer two parts only of question 10.)

10. Mark on map 82b or 81b (giving both location and name):
- the chief ports of France and Germany;
  - the ports of Asia under the control of European powers, designating the controlling power in each case;
  - seven of the following places: Verdun, Varna, Blenheim, Antwerp, Saloniki, Austerlitz, Archangel, Folkestone, Algeciras, Cherbourg.

GROUP V. (Answer question 11 and either 12 or 13.)

11. Write notes upon five of the following topics: Jameson Raid, the discoveries of Lavoisier, Rousseau's Social Contract, the Congress of Verona, the Carlists, the Feminist Movement, the Boxer Rebellion, Duma.
12. "Great as were the achievements of the eighteenth century" (in the advance of natural science), "those of the nineteenth century were still more startling." Give an account of this scientific progress. By what agencies has it been carried on?
13. What is meant by "humanitarian legislation"? Illustrate your answer by examples and citations of European legislation since 1800.

#### DIVISION IV: ENGLISH HISTORY.

GROUP I. (Answer one question only.)

- Write fully on any two of the following persons: Edward I, Alfred the Great, Thomas Becket, Henry V.
- Beginning with the death of Edward III, trace the series of events that led up to the accession of Henry IV.

GROUP II. (Answer one question only.)

- Write fully on any two of the following persons: Earl of Clarendon, Charles James Fox, Duke of Wellington, Sir Robert Peel.
- State and explain the foreign policy of the Earl of Chatham.
- Write the story of British occupation of and rule in Egypt.

GROUP III. (Answer one question only.)

- Why did the Chartist movement take place in the first half of the nineteenth century? What were its demands? Were they reasonable?
- How do you explain the demand for a protective tariff in England during the decade before the war of 1914? Was this demand justifiable?
- Do you think the policy of England toward India has been just? Give reasons for your answer.

GROUP IV. (Answer two parts only of question 9.)

9. Mark on map 81b or 82b (giving both location and name):
- five of the following places: Malta, St. Helena, British Guiana, Hong Kong, Bermuda, Cyprus;
  - five of the following places: Manchester, Hull, Salisbury, Queenstown, Stratford, Edinburgh;
  - five of the following places: Blenheim, Gallipoli, Ladysmith, Kabul, Plains of Abraham, Aboukir Bay.

GROUP V. (Answer question 10 and either 11 or 12.)

- Write notes on five of the following topics: Irish disestablishment, Treaty of Dover, "Bonnie Prince Charlie," the Black Death, prison reform, Laud's tyranny, "the great trek."
- Trace the rise of English trade during the twelfth, thirteenth, and fourteenth centuries as suggested by the following topics: Norman Conquest, Crusades, rise of chartered towns, wool trade, fairs.
- Trace the development of religious toleration in England.

#### DIVISION V: AMERICAN HISTORY.

GROUP I. (Answer one question only.)

- Write the story of the establishment of the colony of Maryland. Why did the subject of religion become important in its government and how did the colony deal with it?
- What were the important measures passed by Parliament between 1763 and 1775 which aroused the hostility of the American colonies? Give a brief account of the effect of two of these and of the conduct of the colonies in regard to them.
- What was the embargo policy of Jefferson? What conditions was it intended to meet?

GROUP II. (Answer one question only.)

- Give an account of two occasions when Daniel Webster played an important role in national politics.
- State the date and manner of the various acquisitions of territory by which the United States reached its present boundaries in North America.
- Sketch the public career of Grover Cleveland, stating the important political questions with which he was connected.

GROUP III. (Answer one question only.)

- Was the United States right in declaring war against Mexico in Polk's administration? Give reasons in full to support your answer.
- What mistakes were made by Congress in its reconstruction policy? State why you regard them as mistakes.
- What arguments would you advance for or against the retention of the Philippine Islands?

GROUP IV. (Answer two parts only of question.)

10. Indicate on the map 175b (giving both location and name):
- the areas in the present boundaries of the United States which were first explored by the Spanish, French, and English, tracing the routes of two important Spanish explorations;
  - the location and name of the following battlefields with the approximate date of the battle: Shiloh, Vicksburg, Camden, Cold Harbor, Gettysburg;
  - the states admitted to the Union between 1812 and 1821.

GROUP V. (Answer question 11 and either 12 or 13.)

- Write notes on five of the following topics: Mayflower Compact, Fundamental Orders of Connecticut, Articles of Confederation, Nullification in South Carolina, the Underground Railroad, Trent Affair, Greenback Party, Adamson Bill.
- State accurately the method prescribed at present by the Constitution for the election of the president of the United States. What happens in case a candidate fails to get the majority of the electoral votes?

13. What has the government of the United States done to promote the construction of railroads?

### COMPREHENSIVE EXAMINATION—HISTORY.

Thursday, September 20, 1917.

Selecting one of the five divisions, answer fully six questions as there required. Take about two hours of your time for these six questions.

If you have studied in your school course only one of these divisions, answer one, or two, or three additional questions from that division.

If, on the other hand, you have studied two or more of these divisions, answer three additional questions not in the division first selected.

Give dates, or approximate dates, where they are needed.

[Instructions for Old Plan Candidates: Candidates entering College by the Old Plan should answer the required six questions in each Division of History which they offer. At Yale and Princeton Division III (Modern European History) is not accepted under the Old Plan. The time allowed for a single Division under the Old Plan is two hours only.]

#### DIVISION I: ANCIENT HISTORY.

##### GROUP I. (Answer one question only.)

1. Write fully on any two of the following persons: Alcibiades, Demosthenes (the orator), Xenophon, Cleisthenes.
2. Trace the development of the Athenian Empire from the recall of Pausanias (478 B. C.) down to the Thirty Years' Truce with Sparta (445 B. C.).

##### GROUP II. (Answer one question only.)

3. Trace the series of events by which Rome became mistress of Southern Italy and Sicily.
4. Write fully on any two of the following persons: Crassus, Constantine the Great, Trajan, Jugurtha.

##### GROUP III. (Answer one question only.)

5. Discuss the accuracy of the statement: "The growth of luxury destroyed the Roman Empire."
6. Were the Athenians justified in condemning Socrates to death? Give reasons for your answer.

##### GROUP IV. (Answer two parts only of question 7.)

7. Mark on map 130b or 135b or 113b (giving both location and name):
  - (a) four places noted for excavations of the Cretan-Mycenaean civilization;
  - (b) any five from the following group: Caesar's last victory over the senatorial forces; Hannibal's greatest victory over Rome; the chief seaport on the east coast of Italy; Hadrian's wall; the province of Asia; the extent of the Mohammedan dominions at the time of the battle of Tours;
  - (c) any five from the following group: a Greek colony in Gaul; the chief city of Assyria; Sparta's chief rival in the Peloponnesus; the victory won by Brasidas over Cleon; the defeat of the Carthaginians by Gelon of Syracuse; the battle of Cyrus the Younger and his Greeks with Artaxerxes.

##### GROUP V. (Answer question 8 and either 9 or 10.)

8. Write notes on any five of the following topics: *pax Romana*, Victory of Samothrace, Peace of Antalcidas, Edict of Caracalla, Book of the Dead, Huns, timocracy.
9. In what respects did Greek architecture differ from Roman architecture? What architectural remains of Roman greatness exist to-day?

10. What is meant by the statement: "Conquered Greece led captive conquering Rome"?

#### DIVISION II: MEDIEVAL AND MODERN HISTORY.

##### GROUP I. (Answer one question only.)

1. Write fully on any two of the following persons: Philip Augustus, Frederick Barbarossa, Lorenzo d' Medici, Erasmus.
2. What contributions to the development of the papal power were made by (a) Gregory VII, (b) Innocent III, and (c) Boniface VII?

##### GROUP II. (Answer one question only.)

3. Historians have called the sixteenth century the period of the "greatness of Spain." Wherein was Spain pre-eminent during that century? How did she lose her pre-eminence?
4. Give an account of the reign of Louis XIV.
5. Give an account of the relations of Austria-Hungary to Italy during the nineteenth century.

##### GROUP III. (Answer one question only.)

6. Compare the Protestant revolt of the sixteenth century, as to causes and results, with earlier movements of protest or reform within the Roman Church.
7. Why did the revolution which overthrew the old régime in Europe begin in France rather than in some other European country?

##### GROUP IV. (Answer two parts only of question 8.)

8. Mark on map 81b or 82b or 112b (giving both location and name):
  - (a) the trade routes between Northern and Southern Europe in the time of the Hanseatic League, with the principal cities and towns on each route;
  - (b) the most important colonial possessions in the Western Hemisphere of France, England, and Spain, just before the outbreak of the Seven Years' War;
  - (c) Burgundy, Brandenburg, Sofia, Dantzic, Rouen, Solferino.

##### GROUP V. (Answer question 9 and either 10 or 11.)

9. Write notes on five of the following topics: oath of Strassburg, capitularies, Golden Bull, Albigenses, Italian despots, *Kulturkampf*, Congo Free State.
10. State how the civilization of Europe during the Middle Ages was affected by each of the following factors: invasions of the Northmen, Roman law, mendicant orders.
11. Describe the present government of the German Empire with particular reference to the powers of the Emperor, the composition of the legislature, and the position of the kingdom of Prussia.

#### DIVISION III: MODERN EUROPEAN HISTORY.

##### GROUP I. (Answer one question only.)

1. Tell the story of the struggle between England and France for supremacy in India.
2. Give an account of the reign of Catherine II of Russia.
3. Give an account of the cause of the French Revolution as suggested by the following words: *gabelle*, *corvée*, Diderot, free gift, *intendant*, Sieyès, *taille*, *lettres de cachet*, *parlement*, Handy Philosophic Dictionary, *Emile*, Turgot. (It is not necessary that all these words should be introduced.)

##### GROUP II. (Answer one question only.)

4. Tell the story of Bismarck's career down to 1866.
5. Write fully upon any two of the following persons:

Francis Joseph, Lord Palmerston, Maria Theresa, Victor Emmanuel II.

6. Tell the story of the Second Republic of France.

GROUP III. (Answer one question only.)

7. What governmental forms have the Continental nations borrowed from England during the nineteenth century? How does the constitution of the German Empire to-day differ from that of England?
8. Would you regard the extinction of the Turkish Empire as a blessing to the world? Give reasons for your answer.
9. Was the first Napoleon anything more than a talented military adventurer? What advantages did his rule bring to France and to other nations?

GROUP IV. (Answer two parts only of question 10.)

10. Mark on map 81b or 82b (giving both location and name):
  - (a) the chief manufacturing centres of England, France, and Germany;
  - (b) the colonies and dependencies acquired by England since 1815;
  - (c) the regions of Europe inhabited by peoples of the Latin, the Germanic, and the Slavic races respectively.

GROUP V. (Answer question 11 and either 12 or 13.)

11. Write notes on five of the following topics: the repeal of the Corn Laws, the *laissez faire* theory, taxation in France before 1789, the doctrine of Papal Infallibility, the theory of evolution, eighteenth-century painting, Voltaire.
12. What have been Germany's chief contributions to civilization in the nineteenth century?
13. Do you think that the economic changes in the past century have tended to increase or diminish the danger of war? Give reasons for your answer.

#### DIVISION IV: ENGLISH HISTORY.

GROUP I. (Answer one question only.)

1. Narrate the principal events of the careers of: (a) Richard the "Lion Hearted," or (b) Henry VIII.
2. Narrate the important facts in the controversy between Henry II and Thomas Becket. What was the importance of the controversy?

GROUP II. (Answer one question only.)

3. Write a story of the public career of: (a) Gladstone, or (b) Lord Salisbury.
4. State the important facts which led to the Reform Bill of 1832. How did the bill attempt to remedy abuses?
5. What important colonies did England develop in the nineteenth century? Give an account of the development of one of them.

GROUP III. (Answer one question only.)

6. Was the policy of Great Britain in defending the integrity of the Turkish Empire justifiable?
7. If you had been a voter in England would or would you not have supported Disraeli? Give your reasons.
8. Has England's foreign policy toward Germany since 1900 been justifiable?

GROUP IV. (Answer two parts only of question 9.)

9. Mark on map 121b or 81b or 82b (giving both location and name):
  - (a) Yorkshire, Kent, Devon, Northumberland, Oxford, Cambridge;
  - (b) five important commercial ports in the British dependencies;

- (c) the possessions of England on the continent of Europe at the time when their extent was greatest.

GROUP V. (Answer question 10 and either 11 or 12.)

10. Write notes on five of the following topics: Canning's Foreign Policy; Catholic Emancipation Act; Staple Towns; Warwick the King-maker; Druidism; Petition of Right; Corn Laws.
11. Relation of the English Cabinet to Parliament.
12. What commercial policy was pursued by Cromwell and adopted by Charles II? Give the reasons for the adoption of this policy.

#### DIVISION V: AMERICAN HISTORY.

GROUP I. (Answer one question only.)

1. Write fully on any two of the following men: Daniel Boone, John C. Calhoun, James G. Blaine, Theodore Roosevelt.
2. What influences and events created in the American colonies a sentiment for independence during the period between 1774 and July, 1776?
3. What conditions of the Critical Period (1781-1787) convinced the people that a strong central government was necessary?

GROUP II. (Answer one question only.)

4. State definitely the provisions of the Compromise of 1850, showing that it was really a compromise.
5. Describe the westward movement during the generation after the War of 1812. What influence did this movement have upon national politics?
6. State the terms of the treaty concluded at the end of the Spanish-American War. What new problems were created for this country by the acquisitions thereby made?

GROUP III. (Answer one question only.)

7. Discuss the Dred Scott Decision.
8. What recent attempts have been made to restrict immigration? Should immigration be restricted? Justify your opinion on the question of putting further restrictions upon immigration.
9. Discuss the justice of the election of President Hayes.

GROUP IV. (Answer two parts only of question 10.)

10. Mark on map 81b or 175b (giving both location and name):
  - (a) the possessions of the United States to-day;
  - (b) the Louisiana Purchase, including doubtful territory;
  - (c) the Erie Canal, the Missouri Compromise Line, the Gadsden Purchase, Oregon according to the Treaty of 1846.

GROUP V. (Answer question 11 and either 12 or 13.)

11. Write briefly on five of the following topics: the Parson's Cause, the Congressional caucus, Jefferson's Embargo, the Venezuela episode, the rise of the Republican party, Johnson's impeachment, free silver.
12. What is the place of the Cabinet in the American government? How does it differ from the place occupied by the English cabinet?
13. What has the national government done to conserve our natural resources? What are the reasons for the present movement for conservation?

C. H. Northcott's "Organization of Labor in War Time in Great Britain" is a good brief account of economic conditions and resources, and is full of suggestion for Americans.

# Publications of the Committee on Public Information Washington, D. C.

The committee was organized under an executive order of the President of April 14, 1917, and is composed of the Secretary of State, the Secretary of War, the Secretary of the Navy, and Mr. George Creel as civilian chairman. The work of the committee is organized under eight heads: (1) Publicity; (2) Civic and Educational Co-operation, of which Prof. G. S. Ford is chairman; (3) the Official Bulletin; (4) the Four-Minute Men; (5) Pictures, under the direction of Mr. W. A. Brady; (6) Posters, under the supervision of Mr. Charles Dana Gibson; (7) Press Censorship; (8) Newspapers

Much historical information is contained in the publications of the committee, all of which are issued free of charge except the Official Bulletin and the pamphlet entitled, "The Battle Line of Democracy."

"How the War Came to America" is the title of a pamphlet of twenty-three pages which traces the traditional foreign policy of the United States, the relations between the United States and Germany in the early years of the war, the growing feeling of opposition to Germany's acts, the submarine crisis, and the declaration of war. This pamphlet is printed not only in English, but also in six foreign languages.

"The National Service Handbook" is issued primarily for reference use in libraries, schools and other organizations. In 246 pages it presents a large array of facts under fourteen headings, including domestic welfare, European war relief, religious associations, professional men and women, finances, industry, commerce and labor, agriculture and food supply, the civil service, the medical and nursing service, the army, the navy, aviation, and directories and bibliographies.

"The Battle Line of Democracy" (15 cents) contains extracts of a patriotic character from the prose and poetic writings of Americans and others, and similar selections upon the Great War.

"The War Message and Facts Behind It" is an excellent elucidation of the general statements appearing in the President's message of April 2, 1917. Appended to almost every sentence of the message is a recital of the facts and principles upon which the President's assertions are based. The notes are drawn not only from American experience with Germany during the war, but also from the expressions of Germans themselves.

In "The Nation in Arms," Secretary Lane answers briefly and pointedly the question, "Why Are We Fighting Germany?" and Secretary Baker tells by what war measures and purposes we propose to carry on the war.

"The Government of Germany," by Prof. C. D. Hazen, gives an analysis of the German and Prussian government in theory and practice, and finds in it support for the President's statements that "the Prussian autocracy was not and could never be our friend;" that it is the "natural foe of liberty," and that it is "an irresponsible government which has thrown aside all considerations of humanity and of right, and is running amuck."

"The Great War: From Spectator to Participant," by Prof. A. C. McLaughlin, is a reprint of the article which appeared in THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE for June, 1917. In it the writer traces the gradual change in the attitude of the United States toward the belligerent nations, and shows how the American people came to a realization

of the democratic ideal of the allies and the despotic ideal of the German Kaiser.

"American Loyalty by Citizens of German Descent" is a compilation of extracts from statements made by seven patriotic citizens. It is to be regretted that it did not include the remarkable letter written by Ex-Mayor Rudolph Blankenburg, of Philadelphia.

"Amerikanische Bürgertreue" is a German translation of the above pamphlet.

By far the most important of the publications of the committee is the "Official Bulletin." This is furnished free to postmasters and to the press, but its importance for the study of current history in the schools has scarcely received the recognition which it should. The Bulletin is issued from Washington daily except Sunday, and it contains from eight to sixteen pages, size 9½ by 12 inches. It is furnished to subscribers for \$5.00 a year. No investment of \$5.00 in other publications or books will prove of nearly as much value to classes in current events. The Bulletin contains the full text of many public documents, summaries of the work of governmental departments, an account of the progress of the war and excerpts from important speeches. A survey of the contents of the Bulletin for a single week (Monday, October 8 to Saturday, October 13) will give an idea of the character of the contents of the paper.

Monday's issue contains directions as to how letters should be addressed to soldiers, it gives a list of orators who will speak on the liberty loan campaign, a full page review of the military operations of the war for the week ending October 6, the weekly statement of the Federal Reserve Board, a brief statement of the proceedings of Congress, a very important resume of the government's activities showing the progress made in mobilizing the nation's resources since the declaration of war against Germany (four pages).

Tuesday's issue continues the above-mentioned resume, it gives the decree of the Uruguayan President for breaking relations with Germany, an account of progress on navy camps and drydocks is made by the Secretary of the Navy. A full account of the organization of the League for National Unity is printed. Other contents are orders issued by President Wilson, a list of the eighteen nations now at war with Germany, and the date upon which the declarations of war were made; Ambassador Sharp's account of his visit to American troops in France, extracts from an act to define, regulate, and punish the enemy; the liberty bonds as a good investment; new orders regulating the sale of coal; Red Cross rules for granting money relief to dependent families of United States soldiers; the cost of former wars to the United States and to other nations, and the cost of the present war; the protection of meat animals; the psychological test for men in training camps.

The Wednesday issue gives the text of telegrams from the German foreign office to Count Bernstorff. It shows the arrangements for bringing twenty food commodities under license control; it gives an account of the navy war-building program; details the organization of the national army; presents certificates showing the unprecedented gold supply of the United States, and it prints the statement of the French General Staff upon the failure of German resources.

The issue for Thursday, October 11, gives the arrangement of the fuel administration for an ample coal supply for the Pennsylvania Railroad; it presents regulations for the distribution of gifts to American sailors; extracts from Secretary Lane's speech for the liberty loan; a table of important financial advances by the United States to the Allies to September 20, 1917; hints to Red Cross home service workers; the President's proclamation concerning certain food necessities; reports of war recreation workers; and other extracts from the act relating to trading with the enemy.

Friday's number contains an account of Admiral Mayo's conference with allied naval officials; the settlement of the strike of copper miners; the President's approval of the price agreement on steel; details concerning the liberty loan campaign; how the food administration saved hundreds of cattle; Peru's reasons for her break with Germany; letter to President Wilson by Cardinal Gibbons and the President's reply; the completion of the highly satisfactory war truck; the text of the act providing for airships (concluded in the next day's issue).

The number for Saturday gives the order by which American steam vessels over twenty-five hundred tons were requisitioned; the aid given the Cuban sugar planters; amusements for soldiers; progress of the liberty bond sales; transfer of National Guard divisions; bituminous coal situation; medical service chiefs; list of government military reservations; an account of the leaflets issued by the government for permanent patriotic courses in public schools; the details concerning 13,000,000 pieces of wearing apparel shipped by the Quartermaster's Department of military camps.

#### THE WAR AND THE SCHOOLS.

President Lyon G. Tyler contributed to the William and Mary College Quarterly Magazine for June, 1917, a paper upon "The South and Germany," in which he repels the assertions made in certain northern journals that the present position of Germany is somewhat similar to the slaveholding aristocracy of the South at the time of the Civil War. He gives evidence to prove his assertion that the present righteous war with Germany represents far more closely the old South in 1861 than the old North of that time.

"How to Study the President's War Message" is treated in the October number of North Carolina "Education" (Vol. 12, No. 2, p. 11), by Mary C. Wiley.

"Missouri and the War" is an article contributed to the "Missouri Historical Review" for October, 1917 (Vol. 12, p. 22), by Floyd C. Shoemaker. The writer refers to the part which Missourians have played in the war up to the present time.

The American School Peace League will offer this year, as previously, two sets of prizes known as the Seabury Prizes for the best essays upon the following subjects: (1) "The Teaching of Democracy as a Factor in a League of Nations," opened to senior students in normal schools; (2) "How Should the World be Organized so as to Prevent Wars in the Future," opened to senior students in secondary schools. Three prizes of \$75, \$50 and \$25 will be given in each one of these subjects. The essays must be in the hands of the secretary, Mrs. Fannie Fern Andrews, 405 Marlborough Street, Boston, Mass., not later than March 1, 1918. Further information concerning the prizes can be obtained from Mrs. Andrews.

An interesting case of the co-operation of national officials is found in the series of "Lessons on Community and

National Life," to be published from October, 1917, to May, 1918, by the United States Bureau of Education. These lessons are based upon President Wilson's letter to school officers of August 23, and they have been prepared under the co-operation of Herbert Hoover, Food Administrator, and P. P. Claxton, Commissioner of the Bureau of Education. Copies of the lessons will be furnished at a low price to schools.

Secretary McAdoo's address before the American Bankers' Association at Atlantic City on September 28 has been printed by the Government Printing Office under the title, "The Second Liberty Loan." The Secretary gives a summary of German attacks upon American commerce and the taking of the lives of American citizens. He concludes from these acts that "we had to fight for our rights, and so it is that we are engaged in a righteous war—a war which we intend to bring to a successful issue by the organized might of this nation." Mr. McAdoo then reviews the financial operations of the government to September, 1917, and goes on to give a description of the second Liberty Loan.

The influence of the war in strengthening the demand for vocational education in European countries is pointed out by Anna Tolman Smith in Bulletin No. 36 for 1917 of the United States Bureau of Education. Probably the change in attitude toward vocational training is greater in England than in the other countries. Both France and Germany had made considerable progress toward the establishment of continuation schools and other vocational studies. England was far behind in this work. In the draft of English regulations the actual details of programs are left to local authorities, but in every case provision must be made for "disinterested studies making for wise living and good citizenship."

"The Conference on Training for Foreign Service" is the topic of Bulletin No. 37, 1917, of the United States Bureau of Education. The Bulletin gives an account of the first conference held in the United States for the specific purpose of discussing the problem of training for foreign service from the standpoint of government, business and education. The aim of the conference was to obtain a basis for an adequate course of instruction through the co-operation of the National Foreign Trade Council, the National Education Association, and the United States Bureau of Education. The Bulletin prints in full the papers presented at the conference in December, 1915, together with a verbatim report of the discussion.

"Opportunities for History Teachers: The Lessons of the Great War in the Class Room" is the title of Teachers' Leaflet No. 1, 1917, issued by the United States Bureau of Education. The pamphlet was prepared by four committees under the general direction of the National Board for Historical Service.

The Philadelphia School Mobilization Committee has been furnishing to the newspapers of the city a daily school lesson bearing upon the present bond campaign. The lessons contain about three hundred words each, and by the direction of the superintendent of schools are read at opening exercises in all the schools of the city. The topics of the daily lessons are as follows: "How We Entered the War," "Why We Entered the War," "What We Have Done in the War," "What Will Happen if Germany Wins," "What Will Happen if We Win," "Why Despotisms Favor War," "Why Democracies Hate War," "Why Money is Needed for War," "Raising Money by Taxes," "Raising Money by Bonds," "What a Liberty Bond Is," "Earning for Liberty Bonds," "Saving for Liberty



Bonds," "A Liberty Bond As An Investment," "In Partnership with the Government," "Where the Bond Money Goes—Army," "Where the Bond Money Goes—Navy," "Where the Bond Money Goes—Airplanes," "Where the Bond Money Goes—Merchant Ships," "Where the Bond Money Goes—Allies."

Upon the request of the United States Civil Service Commission, the attention of the readers of the *MAGAZINE* is called to the urgent need which the United States Government has for thousands of typewriter operators and stenographers. The Commission is greatly concerned that it cannot secure a sufficient number of persons trained in such work, and urges women and men to enter the service as a matter of duty. Examinations are held every Tuesday in four hundred and fifty of the principal cities of the United States. Information and application blanks can be obtained from the United States Civil Service Commission, Washington, or the secretary of the United States Civil Service Board of Examiners at Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Atlanta, Cincinnati, Chicago, St. Paul, St. Louis, New Orleans, Seattle, San Francisco, Honolulu and San Juan, Porto Rico.

#### MILITARY TRAINING IN SCHOOLS.

"Military Training of Youths of School Age in Foreign Countries" is discussed in United States Bureau of Education Bulletin, No. 25, 1917. In his introduction, Mr. W. S. Jesien states that "military instruction, of the exact nature and to the same extent as that given to soldiers, is not found in the schools of any country of Europe except the special military schools. Such training is confined everywhere to the period of active service, and no attempt has ever been made to impose upon the school the task of producing fully trained soldiers. In many countries having universal military service, the public schools provide for training boys in such elements of military training, and at the same time prepare them for the active service awaiting every young man. The attitude of foreign educators in the matter is well defined. They do not, as a rule, regard the military instruction as a successful substitute for the well-established systems of physical training and character building. They generally view it as an anomaly in the school system, justified only by the exigencies of national defense. The enthusiastic support they lend this work comes more from patriotic than from pedagogic motives. Occasionally, however, the beneficial effects of military training upon the moral and physical sides of boys' education are emphasized. Very marked results of this nature have been observed in Australia, which should have more than passing attention." The following outline of the prevailing system is taken from pages 7 to 9 of the pamphlet:

##### BRITISH EMPIRE:

ENGLAND.—Strictly voluntary work carried on by private agencies.

AUSTRALIA.—Military instruction compulsory for all boys from 12 to 18 years of age.

NEW ZEALAND.—Military instruction compulsory for boys over 14 years.

CANADA.—Military instruction carried on in voluntary cadet corps.

##### FRANCE:

Prescribed military instruction without arms, and rifle practice in elementary and higher elementary schools. Ages, 9 to 13 years; rifle practice limited to boys over 10 years of age. Specially trained instructors. Strong or-

ganizations carry on the work of military preparation among older boys.

##### GERMANY:

Voluntary organizations of older public school pupils and students of secondary schools. Training without arms. Decrees issued during the war provide for preparatory military training of all boys over 16 years of age.

##### AUSTRIA-HUNGARY:

AUSTRIA.—Voluntary organizations for military training of pupils of secondary schools, under Government protectorate. Optional rifle practice in the last two years of secondary schools.

HUNGARY.—Military training obligatory in the last three years of certain gymnasia designated by the Government. Voluntary rifle clubs in secondary schools. Military drill in primary schools.

##### SWITZERLAND:

Instruction in military gymnastics in elementary schools obligatory throughout the school age. Conducted by specially trained instructors. Voluntary rifle practice and military drill both with and without arms.

##### SWEDEN:

Compulsory rifle practice in public secondary schools for boys from 15 to 18 years of age. Given by special instructors.

##### NORWAY:

Voluntary rifle practice.

##### ITALY:

Military training given as obligatory subject in "national colleges." Private agencies provide for simple military drill for younger boys.

##### SPAIN:

No distinct military training is given. Some simple drill is included in the program of physical training.

##### PORTUGAL:

No military training is given in schools. The subject of "physical culture," which is taught generally, includes simple drill without arms. Boy Scout organizations are numerous.

##### RUSSIA:

Prescribed military gymnastics in elementary and secondary schools.

##### NETHERLANDS:

Military training given in voluntary organizations for boys over 15 years of age.

##### GREECE:

Very intensive military instruction is given in gymnasia, under the patronage of the King. Simple drill obtains in all public schools in connection with physical training.

##### JAPAN:

Military gymnastics obligatory in elementary, secondary, and normal schools.

##### MEXICO:

Obligatory military drill with arms in all primary and secondary schools. Regulated by State laws.

##### ARGENTINA:

Obligatory military training in the last two years of secondary schools. Specially trained instructors.

##### BOLIVIA:

Simple drill in connection with gymnastics.

## Notes from the Historical Field

Persons who read Professor Westergaard's article on the West Indies in the October number of the *MAGAZINE* will be interested to note that the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce of the United States Department of Commerce has recently issued a report showing the commerce between the United States and the West Indies, in which the facts prove that the United States sold to the West Indies in 1916 goods of greater value than was sold to the entire South American continent.

The subject of text-books for Catholic schools is discussed at length by Francis O'Neill in the "Catholic Educational Review" for October, 1917. The author gives a short sketch of text-book history in America and reaches the conclusion that "Catholic schools should be furnished with a complete series of texts written by practical teachers of Catholic training. A proposal is made for the calling of a representative body made up of experienced Catholic teachers to consider the preparation and publication of satisfactory text-books.

Prof. Arthur H. Basye, of Dartmouth College, has been granted leave of absence for the first term of 1917-18 to take the work in English history at the University of Minnesota, previously performed by Professor Notestein, who is thus released for work in Washington in connection with the Division of Educational Co-operation of the Committee on Public Information, Washington, D. C.

The very serviceable "Syllabus of Modern European History" which has been issued by members of the Department of History of Dartmouth College, appears this fall in a different form from heretofore. Previously the period covered extended from the fall of Rome to the close of the nineteenth century. The new syllabus has eliminated the medieval period and begins the story with the year 1500.

The September, 1917, number of the "Bulletin of the Metropolitan Museum of Art" is devoted to educational work in museums. The editor expresses the thought that the present demand for visual instruction and laboratory practise will lead to the much wider use of the opportunities for learning which the museums afford the schools. The topics developed in the paper include "Commercial Tendencies and an Aesthetic Standard in Education," "Correlating the Instruction Given in the Museum to a Community," "Non-technical Laboratory Work for the Students of the History of Art," "The Museum's Part in the Making of Americans."

A new edition of Elson's "History of the United States of America" has been brought out by the Macmillan Company. New material has been added in Chapters 34 to 36, giving details concerning the government of the insular possessions of the United States, the Panama Canal and the administrations of Taft and Wilson. The narrative of Wilson's administration closes with November, 1916. A suitable bibliography is appended, together with suggestions for the reader.

Dr. Avery W. Skinner, specialist in history of the New York State Department of Education, will continue this winter the series of conferences upon the teaching of history which was inaugurated last year. The conferences are held usually in high school buildings in different parts of the State, and cover the period from September, 1917, to April, 1918.

The "Catholic Historical Review" for October, 1917 (Vol. 3, No. 3), contains the following papers: "Origin of American Aborigines: A Famous Controversy," by Herbert F. Wright; "Virginia Declaration of Rights and Cardinal Bellarmine," by Gaillard Hunt; "The Church of Spanish American History," by Julius Klein; "Catholic Authorship in the American Colonies Before 1784," by William S. Merrill.

### NEW ENGLAND ASSOCIATION.

The annual fall meeting of the New England History Teachers' Association will be held on Saturday, November 3, at Simmons College, Boston. The session will open with the annual business meeting and election of officers. The general subject for discussion at the opening meeting will be "Modern Russian History and Its Conditions." Prof. R. H. Lord, of Harvard University, recently returned from Russia, will speak upon "Some Impressions of the Recent Russian Revolution," and Captain E. Hart, of New York, will give his "Experiences in the Russian Army."

Luncheon will be served in Simmons College, at which the guest of the Association will be the Rev. A. M. Rehmany, who will address the Association upon "The Share of the New American in Making History."

### IOWA SOCIAL SCIENCE TEACHERS.

The Iowa Society of Social Science Teachers will hold their regular session in connection with the Iowa State Teachers' Association on November 1, 2 and 3 at the West High School, Des Moines, Iowa. The following program has been arranged: Thursday, 2.00 p. m., "The Problems of Relative Values in Making the Course of Study in History," by Ernest Horn, Professor of Education, University of Iowa; paper (subject to be announced later), by Charles H. Meyerholz, Professor of Political Science, State Teachers' College; address, "Race, History and Economics in Disputed Territories in Europe," by James T. Shotwell, Professor of History, Columbia University, New York. Thursday, 6.00 p. m., president's address, Gilbert G. Benjamin, Professor of History, University of Iowa; Friday, 2.00 p. m., "Is There a Special Type of American History and Civics for the Rural Schools?" by Prof. Macy Campbell, State Teachers' College; discussion, by Miss Jenette Lewis, County Superintendent of Schools, Calhoun County, and Fred. D. Cram, County Superintendent of Schools, Cerro Gordo County; "What European Background Does An American History Course Require, and How Present It?" by Miss Genevieve Isherwood, High School, Davenport; discussion, by C. G. Leffel, Sioux City High School, and G. L. Kelly, Ottumwa High School; "The University High School Plan of Self-Instruction in History," by Miss Bessie L. Pierce, Instructor in History, University High School, Iowa City; topic open for general discussion. The officers of the Association are: President, Prof. G. G. Benjamin, of the University of Iowa; secretary, Miss Martha Hutchinson, of the West High School, Des Moines; chairman of the Executive Committee, Mr. Thomas Teakle, North High School, Des Moines. In addition to the topics presented at the meetings of the Society of Social Science Teachers, the following general topics of interest to history teachers will be presented in the general program of the State Teachers' Association: "Our Schools and the War," by Governor William L. Harding; "The American Schools and National Character," by President Henry Suzzallo, of the University of Washington; "Making An American," by State Superintendent A. M. Deyoe, and "An Educational Council Upon Teaching Civics and Training for Citizenship."

## Periodical Literature

BY GERTRUDE BRAMLETTE RICHARDS, PH.D.

"With the Boys in Camp," by Hilton Howell Railey in the "Independent" for October 6, begins a series of articles which historians a decade hence will find of value in their study of the Great War.

Professor Ogg's article on "Congress and the Conduct of War" in the "Review of Reviews" for September, is a brief study of the war powers of Congress, and how they have been exercised in the past wars in which our country has taken part.

"In a Tank at Messines Ridge," by Lieut. Z. of the British Army (October "Scribner's"), is the account of fighting in France during the winter of 1916-17.

Ruth Wright Kauffman's "The Woman Ambulance-Driver in France" in "The Outlook" for October 3 gives an insight into what is being accomplished by women in this rather unusual field of activity.

That Spain's attitude to the Allies is profoundly influenced by England's possession of Gibraltar is shown in Juan V. Alonso's article on "La Guerra y la actitud de España" in "Nuestro Tiempo" for July.

Viscount Bryce's article on "Great Men and Greatness" in the September "Fortnightly," is of value for teachers who are trying to interest younger pupils in the study of history.

The September "Contemporary Review" is of especial interest to historians because of the large number of contributions relating to aspects of the Great War. Among the most notable of these are: "The Future of Germany's Colonies," a double article, in which Sir H. H. Johnston argues that these be retained as partial indemnity for injuries inflicted on France and Belgium, while William Harbutt Dawson urges their restoration on the ground that to keep them would be but a petty act of retaliation; "Spain in the World's Debate," by A. F. Bell, who urges that Spain while acting in all sincerity, has been misled by German promises; "Morocco in War Time," by W. B. Harris, a justification of the French policy as shown toward Morocco and an exposition of Morocco's rather anomalous position; "India After the War," by J. Ramsay MacDonald, who argues that the English system in India is quite ruined, and a new phase of Indian policy is about to appear; and "The Ruthenian Question in Russia," by Semen Rapoport, a study of popular feeling in the southern provinces and an explanation of their desire for autonomy.

M. Daniel Zolla's article on "La Situation Agricole en France" in the "Revue des Deux Mondes" for August, is remarkably helpful in tone. France, he says, has overdeveloped her own resources, and is conserving supplies in a remarkably efficient way. She does, however, need certain staple products from abroad which she cannot herself provide.

"Some Aspects of the English Penal Institutions," by Anne Bates, in the "Journal of the American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology" for September, is really only comments on observations, interviews and reading during a sojourn in London. According to Miss Bates, in physical condition English prisons fall below the best in America, but are superior to the worst.

Professor Vernon Kellogg, formerly an informal ambassador to the German Military Command in Flanders and

Northern France, writes of his experiences "At Von Bisping's Headquarters" in the October "Atlantic." He gives a vivid picture of the mistaken policy—even the stupidity of German rule in Belgium, and of the inability of the German mind to comprehend another sort of mentality than its own. The same magazine publishes "The Retinue," by Professor Katharine Lee Bates, one of the most notable war poems which has yet appeared.

"Prussia's Undemocratic Electoral System," by Donald Paige Frary in the October "Review of Reviews," points out that American people do not understand what democratizing Germany means, but that the proposed electoral reform in Prussia is near the heart of the problem as the backbone of the Hollenzollern rule is the antiquated Prussian electoral system which diminishes the power of the bourgeoisie and disfranchises the laboring class, and is not only unequal but irrational.

"A French Diplomat" in his "Portugal's Object Lesson to the United States" (October "Harper's"), states that "never in any European country has the problem of the army and democracy, the same problem which the United States has to solve to-day, been propounded more clearly and in a more theoretical guise than in Portugal." How Portugal met this problem is full of suggestions to the American citizen to-day.

Stanley Washburn writes on "Russia from Within" in the "National Geographic Magazine" for August. The illustrations for this article are no less valuable than the author's interpretation of the attitude of the common people.

### STATEMENT OF THE OWNERSHIP, MANAGEMENT, CIRCULATION, ETC., REQUIRED BY THE ACT OF CONGRESS OF AUGUST 24, 1912,

of THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE, published monthly, except July and August, at Philadelphia, Pa., for October 1, 1917.

State of Pennsylvania, }  
County of Philadelphia. } ss.

Before me, a notary public in and for the State and county aforesaid, personally appeared Albert E. McKinley, who, having been duly sworn according to law, deposes and says that he is the managing editor of THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE, and that the following is, to the best of his knowledge and belief, a true statement of the ownership, management, etc., of the aforesaid publication for the date shown in the above caption, required by the Act of August 24, 1912, embodied in section 443, Postal Laws and Regulations, printed on the reverse of this form, to wit:

1. That the names and addresses of the publisher, editor, managing editor, and business managers are:  
 Publisher, McKinley Publishing Co., Philadelphia, Pa.  
 Editor, Albert E. McKinley, Philadelphia, Pa.  
 Managing Editor, Albert E. McKinley, Philadelphia, Pa.  
 Business Manager, Carl Little, Philadelphia, Pa.

2. That the owners are:  
 Albert E. McKinley, Philadelphia, Pa.  
 Charles S. McKinley, Philadelphia, Pa.

3. That the known bondholders, mortgagees and other security holders owning or holding one per cent. or more of total amount of bonds, mortgages, or other securities are:  
 None.  
 (Signed) ALBERT E. MCKINLEY.

Sworn to and subscribed before me this 20th day of September, 1917. JULIA M. O'BRIEN, Notary Public.

# BOOK REVIEWS

EDITED BY PROFESSOR WAYLAND J. CHASE,  
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

ALLEN, GEORGE H.; WHITEHEAD, HENRY C., AND CHADWICK, ADMIRAL F. E. *The Great War. Vol. II. The Mobilization of the Moral and Physical Forces.* Philadelphia: George Barrie's Sons, 1916. Pp. xxii, 494. \$6.00.

This is the second volume of the first pretentious series on the history of the war to be published in America. The first volume dealt with its causes. This second volume starts with four chapters treating the "Moral Forces" in the various states in the few years just before the war. Here is given an account of the diplomatic negotiations preceding the outbreak. Then follow seven chapters giving the history and description of the military organizations and armies of the various belligerents and another chapter on their naval forces. The last two chapters describe the mobilizations of financial and military forces.

In preparing this work the authors have met great difficulties. The events are too near the present time for good historical perspective, and absolutely complete documentary evidence is of course not yet to be had. But the mass of primary sources is already so enormous as to preclude any three scholars from studying it methodically and in a leisurely manner within the time they have had at their disposal. Considering these great difficulties, the authors have done remarkably well. Doubtless other books will later supersede this, but meanwhile an excellent account is made available for those who wish it in one set of books. The first part of the book is most interesting. As a whole the book is impartial, well written, and interesting. Other books deal better with some phases of the subject, but this one will doubtless be a useful work of reference and prove worthy of purchase by librarians.

Ohio State University.

CLARENCE PERKINS.

CHITWOOD, OLIVER PERRY. *The Immediate Causes of the Great War.* New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1917. Pp. 196. \$1.35, net.

Several authors have already given detailed accounts of the diplomatic negotiations just preceding the outbreak of the war, but owing to the great complexity of the problems many persons may still be confused as to the issues and responsibility. Professor Chitwood does not attempt an exhaustive treatise such as Stowell's "The Diplomacy of the War of 1914." First, he devotes a chapter to a very brief survey of some indirect causes before 1914. Then he discusses the assassination of Francis Ferdinand, and follows the diplomatic negotiations from July 23 to the outbreak of the war. He then gives a brief survey of reasons for Japan, Turkey, Italy, and the lesser belligerents entering the war. There is no reference to the entrance of the United States. He closes with a series of questions to help in fixing the responsibility for the war, but refers for their answers to the previous text. He concludes that the war was largely due to the failure of the diplomats to understand each other, to their carrying the game of bluff too far.

Professor Chitwood maintains an attitude of studied impartiality. Recent disclosures have made it possible to make far stronger assertions than he ventures, for example with regard to the complicity of Germany in sending the Austrian ultimatum to Serbia. It seems to the reviewer that he is almost too careful to avoid disclosing his own views and drawing correct conclusions from the data he lays out before the reader. In the reviewer's opinion

there undoubtedly was some bluff on the part of nearly every disputant, but Austria and Germany were primarily responsible because they created a crisis that was almost certain to lead either to a great diplomatic victory for themselves or to a general war.

The book is on the whole a very good compilation, convenient for use by college students and the more mature high school pupils. It is worthy of purchase by librarians and teachers.

CLARENCE PERKINS.

Ohio State University.

RIDDELL, WILLIAM RENWICK. *The Constitution of Canada.* New Haven: Yale University Press, 1917. Pp. 170. \$1.25.

These four chapters give an excellent bird's-eye view of the subject they treat. They are written in a style authoritative but sufficiently popular for the general reading public and the text is abundantly supported by critical notes. The author reflects the increasingly popular feeling that we have too long emphasized the differences in feeling between the English-speaking peoples, differences which have been allowed to obscure a fundamental unity of history and ideals. The first two chapters are historical and critical. In the last two, far the more interesting portion of the book, an exposition is made of the actual working of the Canadian Constitution and comparisons and contrasts with our own fundamental law are described. The historical grounds for these differences of practice are pointed out in a way highly valuable for the student of comparative government. These lectures rank among the best of the lectures which have been given at Yale on the Dodge Foundation.

CHESTER LLOYD JONES.

University of Wisconsin.

ALTSCHUL, CHARLES. *The American Revolution in Our School Text-books.* New York: The George H. Doran Co., 1917. Pp. 168.

A New York business man observing that there has been in this country for a long time a very strong pro-French sentiment, but no such broad and popular manifestation in favor of the English, wondered why in this world upheaval our sympathy did not go most largely to the nation whence we have drawn our language, the majority of our customs, our political liberty and tradition. Conjecturing that the explanation might be found in the way the story of the American Revolution was told in school histories of twenty years ago, he sought to discover whether "the history of the greatest event in the life of our nation has been taught in the spirit of fair and impartial inquiry for the facts of the case, or in a one-sided manner apt to implant prejudice." Having ascertained what were the forty text-books most in use twenty or more years ago in the three lowest grades in which American history was taught, he compared their treatment of the Revolutionary period with that given to it by the fifty-three text-books now most used. The result of this investigation is presented in this book which is made up largely of grouped extracts revealing the character of the treatment which typical text-books have given. An examination of these extracts seems to support the author in these conclusions:

"The great majority of history text-books, used in our public schools more than twenty years ago, gave a very incomplete picture of general political conditions in England prior to the American Revolution, and either did not refer at all to the great efforts made by prominent Englishmen in behalf of the Colonies, or mentioned them only casually.

"The number of separate history text-books which gave this incomplete picture was not only much larger than the

number of those giving more complete information, but the former circulated in many more communities throughout our country than the latter.

"The public mind must thereby have been prejudiced against England.

"The children now studying American history in the public schools have a far greater number of text-books available which give relatively complete information on this subject; but the improvement is by no means sufficiently marked to prevent continued growth of unfounded prejudice against England."

Here is food for thought for all who desire that truth rather than error shall be promulgated through the teaching of history. The introduction of this book is from the pen of Professor Shotwell, of Columbia University.

MADELIN, LOUIS. *The French Revolution*. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1916. Pp. 662. \$2.50, net.

This work appears in Funck-Brentano's series, "The National History of France." It received the Gobert Prize from the French Academy, a signal honor. The author disclaims any intention to write a school text-book or a learned work. Obviously a complete history of the Great Revolution from 1789 to 1800 could not be included in a single volume. What M. Madelin has done is to draw a series of wonderful word pictures of the great events connected by a narrative and interpretation based upon the latest modern research. For his material he has drawn not only upon the great collections of sources, but upon the vast collections of memoirs, journals, notes, and especially letters of the time.

Though the author's attention has been directed chiefly to the political history of the Revolution, and he has not taken up the details of negotiations and campaigns, he has not altogether lost sight of the social and economic phases of the Revolution. He has usually been unprejudiced, though he does not hesitate to criticize men and policies with biting words. For the average high school pupil, the language of the book is likely to be too difficult. But the thrilling pictures of events may well be appreciated by the more mature. It is a scholarly work written in a brilliant style, an unusual combination. The general reader will find it delightful reading.

CLARENCE PERKINS.

Ohio State University.

NIDA, WILLIAM L. *Story of the World War for Young People*. Oak Park, Illinois: Hale Book Co., 1917. Pp. 128. 30 cents.

As a response to the widespread demand of teachers for a book to assist them in interpreting this war to their pupils, this concise and simple story of the first three years of the great conflict is offered. Introduced by short chapters sketching the rise of the German Empire, the ambitions of its ruler and the recent history of the Balkan countries, the narrative treats of immediate causes, and the beginnings of the war, the campaigns by years with supplementing chapters on methods of warfare and noteworthy events down to mid-summer of this year. Our country's entrance is described, the reasons are well set forth, largely in the words of one of the addresses of Secretary Lane, and the significance of our participation is brought home to the reader. The story is vigorously and plainly told with due regard for fact and without undue passion. It is in large type, within paper covers, and is without maps or illustrations. It seems best adapted to the upper grammar and lower high school grades.

LATOUBETTE, KENNETH SCOTT. *The Development of China*. New York: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1917. Pp. 273. \$1.75.

A review of the development of so large an area as China from the earliest times to the present is attempted in this small volume. The discussion must of course be summary, so summary that the reader is often left with a feeling that he has had a door opened before him only to see it suddenly closed. After all, if the author seeks to stimulate his reader to a wider interest in China, perhaps this is an effective method.

After a sketch of the geography of China, the author passes in rapid review the dynastic changes which have marked its history, and even more hurriedly the cultural developments. The recurring discussions of religious movements give a fairly complete picture of the development of the chief faiths which have influenced Chinese life. Chinese art receives but scant attention. Commerce, the official class organization and education are given brief but clear characterization. There is an interesting discussion of the development of the written language.

The last third of the book discusses the developments since the opening of the country to western influences. It is here particularly that the reader feels that the discussion is so sketchy that clearness of outline is sacrificed. In the closing chapter the problems now confronting China are treated. The author has confidence in the natural abilities of the people; he shares the hope that China may successfully resist the forces of disintegration which surround her, but the list of difficulties which she must overcome is discouraging.

CHESTER LLOYD JONES.

University of Wisconsin.

GIBBONS, HERBERT ADAMS.—*The New Map of Africa*. New York: The Century Co., 1916.

According to his preface, Mr. Gibbons aims to bring clearly before us "the forces that have driven Europe to war," and "the issues that the war is bringing to a clearer light," so far as Africa is concerned, as well as "the facts concerning Africa essential to the student of contemporary European history." The German, Belgic, Italian and Portuguese colonies receive adequate space on the whole, the Spanish colonies decidedly inadequate; Liberia and Abyssinia all probably they are entitled to. Too little space is, however, given to the French colonial empire, a phase of African development about which we would readily learn more, and too much to such well-known topics as the Boer War, Egypt and the Soudan. We agree with another reviewer ("American Historical Review," July, 1917, pages 873-875) that a better chronological arrangement of the chapters would make less confused the colonial development the author is describing. Egypt and the Soudan should be together, not far apart and in the wrong order; South Africa and Rhodesia belong side by side. Mr. Gibbons expects us to have his "New Map of Europe" at hand to fill in "the European side" to African events, and his expectations are perhaps justifiable. Both of his titles suggest, however, the potential rather than the perfect in tense, since we are not inclined to accept anything as conclusively settled at present about the new maps of either continent, particularly of Africa. Events in Egypt, Morocco, German Africa and South Africa, taking place apparently while this book was in preparation, changed the African situation, and would probably have affected the author's conclusions. The statement, too (p. 490), "Her [Russia's] attitude toward Poland and toward the Jews is as abominable as it was before the war," might well have caused some dispute even in November, 1916, and Russia certainly has moved forward since then. The maps are not

as clear nor as accurate as we might expect. The persistent use of italics in the text gives somewhat of a polemical cast. The book cannot be the last word on the phase of colonial development it describes because that phase is not ended, though perhaps near an end; it cannot reveal clearly the network of colonial diplomacy because many of its threads are unknown yet to any save the weavers thereof. With due regard for these inevitable limitations it has, however, a useful place in the political literature of the present time.

ARTHUR I. ANDREWS.

PEARSON, FRANCIS B. *Reveries of a Schoolmaster*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1917. Pp. 203. \$1.00.

A gentle and agreeable philosophy permeates these reveries, and they range over a wide field of human interest and reflect the author's long experience as a teacher. They are far from aimless since this schoolmaster sticks to his trade even when he exchanges the ferule for the pen, for he would make others, especially his fellow teachers, profit by his experiences. So with homely wit and pleasant play of fancy he punctures this educational theory or extols that, every chapter having its moral, and abounding with cheeriness and human sympathy. Sometimes this wisdom seems platitudinous, but often it is keen, stimulating and enjoyable.

ROBERTS, PETER. *Civics for Coming Americans*. New York: Association Press, 1917. Pp. 118. 50 cents.

This book is intended for use with classes composed of immigrants who are seeking naturalization. In the form of answers to questions the important features of our local, State and national governments are concisely described. There are chapters also upon our rights, democracy, taxes, voting and parties. The book would seem to be very well adapted for its purpose the only qualification being that the language is not always as simple as might be necessary for those who are just acquiring the ability to read English.

WRIGHT, CHARLES H. C. *A History of the Third French Republic*. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Co., 1916. Pp. 206. \$1.50, net.

During the later years of the nineteenth century, and even later, many Americans may have felt that France was a decadent country, no longer a great power of first rank. This impression was not unnatural considering the débacle of 1870, the political corruption and scandals, and the disgraceful features of the Dreyfus affair, the importance of which was magnified by the pessimistic clamor of grumbling Freshmen. But during the past five years most unprejudiced Americans have come to the conclusion that France has tremendous reserves of strength, and has been developing slowly but surely toward real democracy in government and society based upon sound education of the masses. Professor Wright has drawn a fine picture of this political evolution through which France has been passing. Without giving too much detail he has told the significant facts concerning the internal history of France, 1870-1914. French foreign and colonial policies have not been neglected. He does not disguise the unfavorable things, but is optimistic in his views of French progress. Altogether the book is extremely illuminating as well as very readable. Though the language is slightly difficult for the younger high school pupils, the book will be very valuable for reference.

CLARENCE PERKINS.

## CURRENT PERIODICAL ARTICLES ON THE TEACHING OF HISTORY.

LISTED BY W. L. HALL, OF THE NEW YORK STATE LIBRARY.

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## CONTENTS

Democracy and War, by Prof. J. G. Randall	-	-	-	329
The Holy Alliance, by Dr. W. S. Robertson	-	-	-	337
The Importance of the Agricultural Revolution, by Prof. R. G. Taylor	-	-	-	342
Freshman History Course at Louisiana State University, by Prof. M. L. Bonham, Jr.	-	-	-	345
Ancient History in a Technical High School, by H. R. Hunter,				347
Suggestions for Secondary School History :				
I. Ancient Democracy and the Laboring Class, by Prof. G. W. Botsford,				349
II. Seventeenth Century England, by Prof. W. Notestein	-	-		350
III. American Experience, 1775-1783, by Dr. J. Sullivan	-	-		351
IV. The Origins of the Triple Alliance	-	-	-	353
Program of the American Historical Association, 354; Work of National Board for Historical Service, 355; the War and Schools, 356; Current Periodical Articles on History Teaching, listed by W. L. Hall, 358; Notes from the Historical Field, 358; Periodical Literature, by Dr. G. B. Richards, 361; Book Reviews, edited by Prof. W. J. Chase, 362; list of History Teachers' Associations, 364; Recent Historical Publications, listed by Dr. C. A. Coulomb, 365; Index to Vol. VIII, 367.				

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## Democracy and War

BY PROFESSOR J. G. RANDALL, ROANOKE COLLEGE.

### I.

This is a day of pamphleteers. One of the effects of the Great War upon an age of intellectual fermentation has been to produce a mass of brochures and articles dealing with the fundamentals of philosophy and politics. Like England in the seventeenth century and America and France in the eighteenth, the world to-day is striving for a reinterpretation of political creeds and feeling its way toward safer philosophical conceptions.

In former ages of active pamphleteering, multitudes of short treatises have poured forth from high and low, all dealing with the one great theme which occupied the focus of attention. So to-day there seems to be a converging of thought upon the international bearings of social philosophy. Scholars and thinkers everywhere have sought to make their appropriate contributions. Such elaborate discussions may produce little permanent literature, yet the extent of profound thinking which they betoken is of the highest significance. The Declaration of Rights of the Nations, a sort of international Declaration of Independence, promulgated by the Pan-American Scientific Congress, is so obviously reminiscent of Philadelphia in 1776 and Paris in 1789 that it may thrill us to look for another great Charter of Liberty as a product of these stirring times. We are agreed, I believe, that the next great charter must be in the international field, and that we are now living in the "old regime" so far as international politics are concerned.

If the reader is content with this veiled apology for presuming to offer another pamphlet (i. e., magazine article) on the familiar subject, "Democracy and War," we may now proceed to the examination of some of the points preliminary to the discussion. Let us notice at the outset that the terms democracy and monarchy suggest a false simplicity of classification. To attempt to judge a nation, and predict its probable reactions according to its monarchical or democratic character, would lead only to the most superficial conclusions. There are many other important terms in the equation. It should be known, for instance, whether the nation has had a passive, protected existence, as China, or whether its career has been turbulent and strenuous. Do the citizens have ready access to land, as in the United States, or is land a monopoly of a small upper class, as in Mexico where millions of acres may be owned by one family? Are

important functions under the control of local authorities, as in England and the United States, or is the administration highly centralized and bureaucratic? Does the nation manifest self-restraint in averting internal revolutions, or do elections tend to produce wars? We would know, too, the nation's age. If a nation is young enough to have escaped the law of entail and is free from privileged orders, that is a more pregnant fact than its classification as a monarchy or a democracy. Better a land without traditions than one whose traditions hark back to Frederick the Great the plunderer, Napoleon the brigand, or Metternich the false stabilizer. Europe, with its inflexible social groupings, dynastic claims, racial antagonisms, national shibboleths, and frontier slogans, is in the cursed grasp of the past's dead hand: in short, Europe has inherited too much. And England, too, is not merely a "crowned republic," as Tennyson phrased it. Adopting Wells's expression (in *Tono-Bungay*) for English social exclusiveness, one might refer to England as a democracy touched with "Bladesovery." The entanglements of a nation's international obligations, the live principles of its diplomacy, the culture alliances which entail pledges of sympathetic wars (for a war as well as a strike may be sympathetic), the suitability of the nation's intellectual climate for the incubation of that *rara avis* the "international mind"—these factors must not be obscured, for they are essential to our problem. In fine, we must not make of "democracy" a catch phrase.

A clearing of the ground is, indeed, needed regarding notions of democracy. It may be urged that public opinion rules in every modern form of state, monarchies included. In these days when Persia, Turkey and China have their "constitutions," it may appear that unlimited monarchy is obsolete. Professor Hasbach (writing in the "American Political Science Review" for February, 1915), urges that you cannot make supremacy of public opinion the essential of democracy—this, he says, is like calling the circulation of the blood the essential characteristic of the species man. It is true, of course, that in a modern monarchy the sovereign regards the people's will, while in the modern democracy much of what we call public opinion is the result of artificial stimulation, and may at times be disregarded by representatives. For our purpose, however, and to avoid quibbling (without claiming finality for



our definitions) let us think of democracy as effective popular rule. A democratic state, as conceived of in this article, is a people politically organized and *served* by a government of its choosing, and a monarchy is a people *ruled* by a sovereign and a ministry not fully responsible. England would thus be essentially a democracy, and particularly are its reactions toward war characteristically democratic. Mexico under Diaz, though formally a democracy, would be virtually a monarchy. The same should perhaps be said of the "republic" of China under Yuan Shih-Kai. The United States, Switzerland, France, and the "A B C" states of South America would answer fully to the definition of democracies, while Germany, old Russia, Austria, Japan and Turkey would be monarchical types. Such a state as Greece would be hard to classify, since its sovereign has much real power, yet its democratic spirit is very much alive. England, whose king is a mere "glorified rubber stamp"—a restricted being who cannot freely choose his own wife or butler,<sup>1</sup> much less his ministers—is definitely out of the class of real monarchies. In our complex world, monarchies shade off into democracies, as in Norway, but it is illogical to consider a distinction untrue because it "breaks down at the border," and if we set the monarchical *norm* over against the democratic *norm*, we shall, I believe, find them mutually exclusive.

## II.

So considered, monarchies and democracies will be seen to present characteristic differences. Monarchical rulers do not indeed ignore public opinion; they control it. Whereas public opinion in a democracy is shaped and twisted by party leaders, party newspapers, and party bosses, in a monarchy it is shaped and twisted by the monarch and his obedient bureaucracy. Independent parties, motivated by real convictions on public issues, are stifled and disinherited. In Germany the Socialists, with over four million voters, were before the war denounced by the Kaiser as a "red danger" and as "enemies of the Fatherland," and were referred to in all seriousness by former Chancellor Bülow as having "no right to exist." During the war their existence, as Socialists, is indeed but shadowy. The manufacture of public opinion (can it be called such?) is laboriously promoted by the German government. By the official control of newspapers and elections, by the law of *lèse majesté*, by the use of patronage to swing votes in the Reichstag, by censorship of the press, by an elaborate police surveillance over public meetings, by *bloc* voting, by an unequal apportionment of legislative seats—by the cumulative effect of these and similar agencies the German monarchy dominates the state. Bismarck's defiance of the popular will in the memorable "conflict time," and Bethmann-Hollweg's indifference to the resolutions of the Reichstag point significantly to the location of the political center of

gravity in Germany.<sup>2</sup> The government does not bow to nor conciliate public opinion; it decides upon a suitable type of opinion, standardizes it, and refuses to allow any other opinion to become articulate. In spite of the spread of constitutionalism, upon which Professor Hasbach dwells, it would seem that, at least in a bureaucratic monarchy such as Germany, the supremacy of any genuine public opinion is impossible.

Examined with reference to his natural and immediate mental reactions toward government, a marked difference appears between the citizen of a monarchy and the prevailing democratic type. In a kingdom or empire the subject takes for granted the ruthless use of force, the conception of the people as politically incompetent, the notion of a king as an irresponsible being subject only to self-imposed limitations, the conception of the state as a dynastic patrimony, and of a constitution as a gift from the gracious sovereign to his "dear people." Such a mind questions free speech and popular restraint of government. The typical democrat takes for granted the modern idea that government emanates from the people (see primarily Milton, Locke, Hobbes and Jefferson, and secondarily Rousseau, Voltaire and Montesquieu). The reasonableness of popular restraint of government, and the rightful claim to predominance on the basis of numerical majority, are axiomatic with him. On the other hand, he questions government by fear, prefers living comfortably to "living dangerously," discounts inquisitorial police methods, and abhors press censorship. In England, where monarchy is not taken seriously, it is significant that the only basis for censorship is to be found in the Defense of the Realm Act, a distasteful emergency measure; in Germany, where monarchy is taken seriously, the principle of such censorship is normal even in peace times. Americans would not tolerate executive interference with personal liberty in the case of the Alien and Sedition Acts, and they were not enforced, but it would not occur to the German (of the dominant type) to question such methods.

The democrat tends to think of the men who compose the government as servants, while the subject of a king tends to think of them as masters, or, at best, guardians. A monarchical government may, indeed, serve the *interests* of its people, as in the case of the Roman *panem et circenses* or the state socialism of modern Germany, but there is a vast difference between serving the people's *interests* and serving their *will*. A guardian, in serving the interests of his ward, denies by that very act the competency of the ward to make independent decisions. So a paternalistic government may take various measures of its own to insure the people's well-being without for a moment admitting either the people's right or their ability to select appropriate measures for the promotion of wel-

<sup>1</sup> The Queen cannot be a Catholic, and the Lord Chamberlain must be politically acceptable.

<sup>2</sup> See W. W. Willoughby, "The Relation of the Individual to the State," in "Problems of Readjustment After the War" (New York, Appleton, 1915).

fare, or even properly to conceive in what direction welfare lies.

Stevenson thus characterized a well-known type: "Some people swallow the universe like a pill." There are folks who question nothing, protest at nothing, but complacently acquiesce in whatever befalls them. The unprotesting citizen, who takes the government's word as the law and the prophets, is a more familiar type in a monarchy than in a democracy. Real opinion, of the sort not governmentally inspired, has been, in some monarchies, so long ineffective that the power to think politically has either become atrophied or has been perverted into radicalism.

For this reason, it may fairly be questioned whether a nation can be itself under a monarchy. Where popular rule is not effective, it is more than doubtful whether a nation can live its true life. As Frederic Harrison has pointed out, France was dictatorial under Napoleon III, and yet it could hardly be maintained that this was the real France.<sup>3</sup> If the spontaneous liberal movement of 1848 represented the real Germany, as many believe, then the present Kaiser's *Deutschland* is not genuinely German. The two are as far apart as the poles. There is an artificial motivation of a nation's forces in the case of a monarchy which leads easily to a perversion of its real spirit.

### III.

Before proceeding further, lest an excess of democratic enthusiasm may lead us astray, let us set it down that no existing state presents more than a rough approximation to the democratic ideal. Actual democracies are too often marred by narrow opportunism. Franklin, for instance (whom we should honor more as a citizen than as a sage), never rose above mere common-sense philosophy. Poor Richard's whole gospel is to get along in the world; one looks in vain for inspiring idealism. There is a cold practicality, a selfishness, a lack of vision, which has often characterized the American's philosophy of life, affecting, of course, his government. "Habit without philosophy," as Plato called it, is too likely to be a democratic fault. The impulse to "do things" and achieve success, with no broad vision of a great cause to be furthered or a noble purpose to be served, is a weakness of republics.

We should lament our democratic cock-sureness regarding the finality of such terms as "liberty," "education," and "progress." G. K. Chesterton, to whose genial orthodoxy we must often bow, put it thus: "We are fond of talking about 'progress'; that is a dodge to avoid discussing what is good. . . . The modern man says, . . . 'Neither in religion nor morality, my friend, lie the hopes of the race, but in education.' This, clearly expressed, means, 'We cannot

decide what is good, but let us give it to our children.' . . . Nobody can be progressive without being doctrinal, . . . without believing in some infallibility. For progress by its very name indicates a direction; and the moment we are in the least doubtful about the direction, we become in the same degree doubtful about the progress. . . . It is not merely true that the age which has settled least what is progress is this 'progressive' age. It is, moreover, true that the people who have settled least what is progress are the most 'progressive' people in it."<sup>4</sup>

Democracies are, besides, not free from that irrational inference which Graham Wallas has so engagingly brought to our attention.<sup>5</sup> Many thousands of American voters are hereditarily Republicans or geographically Democrats. A party banner or a campaign song may swing more votes than arguments or principles. The voter at the fireside, in whose hands President Garfield, in a well-known passage, was content to rest the destiny of the nation, may take his ideas from partisan headlines and cartoons. Snobishness is not always absent from democracies, as witness the self-importance of petty naval officers in America. There are still many sinister elements in American political life. Our democracy has produced the Declaration of Independence, the Philadelphia Constitution, the federal system, the civil service law, national conservation, and the Monroe Doctrine. But it has also created railroad frauds, the Philippine "water cure," predatory trusts, unspeakable municipal graft, bought elections, and police-protected vice. Tweed, Croker and Barnes have been no less our rulers than Washington, Jefferson and Lincoln. The invisible government, irresponsible but all powerful, has kept a strong grip upon the political machinery of our states and cities, and boss control has even touched the White House. It will be well to qualify all our deductions regarding democracy with the reflection that no form of rule can obliterate human nature.

### IV.

An immense question, which is fundamental to our inquiry, concerns the attitude of democracies toward foreign affairs. It would require considerable twisting of the evidence to argue that democracies take an intelligent, rational interest in international policy. We readily recall how many Americans remarked, when the "Lusitania" went down, "Oh well, they shouldn't have sailed on a British ship." We do not forget that a great American merchant advanced the preposterous proposal that business interests here should "purchase" Belgium from Germany to present it to the Belgian people, nor that one of our most democratic millionaires carried over a hundred highly respected Americans to Europe on a Ship of Peace whose quixotic voyage, unaccompanied by an organ-

<sup>3</sup> Writing in 1866, Mr. Harrison referred to France as the "Latin Catholic revolutionary and dictatorial power." ("Realities and Ideals," p. 4.) There was less of the dictatorial character, and less blundering, in the foreign policy of France after the fall of the Emperor Napoleon III, and the establishment of the third republic.

<sup>4</sup> Chesterton, "On the Negative Spirit," in "Heretics," pp. 33, 36, 37.

<sup>5</sup> Graham Wallas, "Human Nature in Politics." (I am greatly indebted to Mr. Wallas for the rich suggestions in this book, and in "The Great Society.")

ized peace propaganda and unguided by any definite program, ended in merely exposing the helplessness of pacific sentiment as against the cold facts of actual war.

We realize how inarticulate has been the mass of kindly sentiment in the United States toward the Japanese, and how vocal the extreme views of a few Chauvinists who claim to see in the "yellow peril" a prophecy of another world-shaking war. Editors, we know, while not regarding international harmony and good-will as suitable material for headlines, will confront us with staggering articles when a Japanese corporation seeks a foothold in Magdalena Bay, or when a few Japanese vessels casually assemble off the Mexican coast in response to the distress signals of a stranded supply-ship. Our newspapers print at once too little and too much regarding foreign nations. There is no really adequate international news service for the United States, but our telegraph editors, taking the imperfect reports they have, often amplify and interpret and distort the news until the net result amounts to an absolute falsification. Unfortunately our newspaper editors are practically not responsible, except to the business firms whose advertisements nourish them. In the present war we have been regaled with many "fake" stories, announcing the purchase by the Kaiser of immense tracts of land in America as a future place of refuge, heralding the approach of a Russian force through England by way of Scotland and thence to the continent, describing that mysterious new chemical by which the French were able to transform the Germans into upright corpses, prophesying speedy starvation in Germany, informing the world of the resistance of Liege until the 14th of August when it really crumbled before the Teutonic guns on the 7th, etc. With such imperfect media of information, hardly better in quiet times than in times of upheaval, it would be a wonder indeed if the average American should arrive at reliable conclusions regarding the world's affairs.

On the administrative side, it seems all but hopeless effectively to democratize foreign policy. In the first stage of the "Lusitania" negotiations, all Americans looked to one man, the President, for the vindication of our honor. It is true that he took the people into his confidence at first by publishing the "notes"; but when the controversy had become more advanced, secret and less formal exchanges of views were substituted, with favorable results. The senate can ratify treaties, but the diplomatic corps, headed by the President with his Secretary of State, must (often with secrecy) conduct the real work of diplomacy in those critical stages which are preliminary to, or wholly apart from, treaties. When it is a question between a treaty and a war, the President may commit the country to the decision for war before the matter ever comes to the senate. Elections, as methods of gauging public sentiment on international problems, are out of the question, considering that they are periodically determined, and that the combination of domestic and foreign issues would be confusing. It

seems that we Americans must acquiesce in certain undemocratic processes in the control of foreign affairs, contenting ourselves with the thought that our Presidents are ultimately responsible to us, and that they are usually more pacific than our Congresses.

And yet, in spite of the lax interest of republics in external affairs, and the failure to democratize foreign policy, there are many rays of hope on the horizon. Secret diplomacy in the sinister sense, with all that it signifies of underhand intrigue, is conspicuously absent from our great democracies. The golden rule, which is the essence of Christian comity, has actually found a place in democratic diplomacy. As the men of Argentine and Chili gaze upon the noble form of the Christ of the Andes it must thrill them to reflect that the spirit of conciliation which the Nazarene taught has become embodied in new-world politics. That the United States should yield a point in the canal tolls controversy rather than offend a great nation with whom we had been at peace for a century is an appealing thought to those interested in the future of democracy. And the remission of the Chinese indemnity, which our Congress voted on the recommendation of President Roosevelt, speaks volumes for the cause of open-mindedness and Christian good-will in the affairs of nations.

The growing enthusiasm for pan-Americanism, made definite by arbitration treaties, and stimulated by inspiring congresses such as the notable gathering at Washington in December, 1915, is evidence that the republics of the western hemisphere are lifting international harmony from a mere sentiment to a program. Other "pan . . . isms" (such as the Slav and the German) may have a domestic basis in clan-nishness and a foreign basis in aggression, but pan-Americanism (though the word is perhaps unfortunate) is of a different type. It raises no menacing hand, and supports no external propaganda; it does not represent the militant merging of peoples on the basis of racial association. On the contrary, it overrides that prejudice which results from diversity of race and customs, and seeks merely a better attitude of the great American nations among themselves. Diplomacy may not yet have become popularized, but with the growth of democracy there has come a conquest of international jealousies which amounts to a veritable emancipation. To be a foreigner is to be a neighbor, not an alien.

## V.

Turning to the attitude of democracies toward broad questions of war and peace, we may venture the generalization that, in a democracy, war is unpremeditated and exceptional—merely a necessary evil, while in a monarchy it is likely to be regarded as normal. The disbandment of the immense Civil War army in the United States till it amounted to but a handful testified to our conception of war as abnormal. The uncertainty of aim which successive French ministries manifested regarding the fortification of the Franco-Belgian frontier indicated a lack of premeditation

touching a vital and definite war-hazard.<sup>6</sup> While it does not of course prove France to have been lacking in campaign plans, nor free from talk about the "next war," it nevertheless contrasts sharply with the steady calculation of Germany in studying Belgian forts and topography, converging her strategic railways upon the Belgian line, and laying schemes for a definite aggressive campaign. Though every European "power" kept up the miserable system of international espionage during peace times, there was in the elaborate German spy system a definiteness of aim which surpassed all other states—certainly there was no state under popular rule which equalled it. Such continuity of purpose, and such a vivid sense of the near prospect of a great war would hardly have been conceivable had Germany been a democracy.

There is a manifest dread on the part of monarchical governments regarding the interference of their peoples in war questions. Military and naval projects and war budgets have been carried through in spite of majority opposition in the legislature in such countries as Germany and Japan. Such a thing would be inconceivable in England or the United States.

Instances might be multiplied to show that democracies do not take military life so seriously as monarchies. Great American generals have been great civilians. Washington loved the farm better than the camp. Lee's greatest delight was at the fireside. Grant, Thomas, McClellan and Sherman, though trained at West Point, left the army from choice, and rejoined the service only at the outbreak of war. Grant, while ex-President, was once roughly handled by a New York policeman at a fire. Without revealing his identity he unresistingly followed the policeman's orders.<sup>7</sup> This was a small incident, but precisely because it shows that sort of conduct which we take for granted in this country, it is worth dwelling upon in our present discussion. Grant's behavior was characteristically American, but can it be supposed that in a militaristic monarchy a man of such high military rank would have meekly yielded to a subordinate? Would he not, on the contrary, have stood on his dignity and reported the officer for discipline? From the swaggering behavior of military officers in some of the continental monarchies toward mere civilians one would naturally conclude that war is regarded as the chief business of mankind, and that nothing is thought of as approaching the military career in importance. That the English should shove "Tommy" aside in quiet times, but furnish "Mr. Atkins" a special train "when the troop-ship's on the tide" may not seem particularly admirable, but it at least indicates that the English are free from illusions about the glory of the soldier's profession. Such a play as Shaw's "Arms and the Man" with its expo-

sure of the unmanly qualities in war, and its admirable satire on the "chocolate-cream soldier," is not so much needed in England as in the continental monarchies.

Was Kant right in arguing an essential harmony between a republican constitution and peace? Let us see. Dynastic interests, for one thing, are a familiar cause of war. Bulgaria was dragged by her intruding German king into a conflict against her traditional ally and protector, Russia, and in association with her traditional and recent enemy, Turkey. Had Bulgaria been a democracy there would have been a different story to tell. Bülow, writing of Bismarck's Polish policy, declared that rules of private morality do not apply to national conduct. It is not so easy to conceive of a democratic statesman openly appealing to such principles. A government responsible to its people would not have seriously considered precipitating the horrors of a world-war for such a conception as *Weltpolitik* tinged with Hohenzollern ambition.

On the contrary, the "open door" and the Monroe Doctrine are typical democratic slogans, and both of them are potent formulas of peace, since they narrow the areas of international friction, and remove large sections of the world from the grasping hands of the war-like "powers." Walter Lippman's timely proposal for permanent international commissions to police and control those weak spots of the world which cause friction (Morocco, the Congo, the Balkan peninsula, etc.), a form of internationalism which is the more valuable because it is not "spread out thin as a Parliament of Man," would be more likely to arouse support in the great democracies of the world than in the great monarchies.<sup>8</sup> A democracy may, as in the case of Switzerland, possess a substantial army, but preparedness, not conquest, is its aim. Though conquest seemed superficially to be the motive of the Americans in the Spanish war, yet the very definite intention of making the Philippines independent, and the sincerity of our disclaimer regarding the annexation of Cuba, enables us to say before the world that the war was fought for the realization of national ideals, not for the purpose of aggrandizement. Some Europeans have marvelled that the United States did not grasp the opportunity to seize Canada while England was engaged in the Great War. Such a preposterous motive could not be attributed to us except by those whose whole view of war and of international morality is fundamentally different from ours.

Bernhardi (whose book the Germans disclaim) argued that war is a "blessing" and a "duty," that "might is . . . the supreme right" (a direct quotation), that there is no function for international courts, that when relations become strained arbitration treaties "will burn like tinder and end in smoke" (the "scrap of paper" idea), that "the brutal incidents inseparable from every war vanish

<sup>6</sup> Belloc, "Elements of the Great War," 275-276.

<sup>7</sup> A full account of this incident is to be found in Riis, "The Making of an American" (Macmillan Standard Lib.), p. 224.

<sup>8</sup> Walter Lippman, "The Stakes of Diplomacy," chap. ix.

before the idealism of the main result," and that Christianity is itself "combative."

Bernhardi could write: "It was war which laid the foundations of Prussia's power. . . . War forged that Prussia, hard as steel, on which the new Germany could grow up as a mighty European state and a world power of the future. Here once more war showed its creative power. . . . The efforts directed toward the abolition of war must not only be termed foolish, but absolutely immoral. . . . It is proposed to obviate the great quarrels between nations and states by Courts of Arbitration—that is, by arrangements. A one-sided, restricted, formal law is to be established in the place of the decisions of history. The weak nation is to have the same right to live as the powerful and vigorous nation. The whole idea represents a presumptuous encroachment on the natural laws of development, which can only lead to the most disastrous consequences for humanity generally."<sup>9</sup>

Yes, but the federative idea "forged" the United States constitution, and the commonwealths of Canada, Australia, and South Africa—products in no way inferior to militaristic Prussia. History knows other "creative" forces besides war. The notion that war is in eternal harmony with the "natural laws of development"—i.e., that the biological principle of the survival of the fittest is an unanswerable scientific justification of war, is merely an illogical inference, of grossly pernicious effect, which has taken hold of highly intellectual minds. It is the fittest, be it remembered, not the fiercest, who survive. Warlike qualities, in the case of the Indian, the wolf and the pirate, have tended toward extinction, not survival. Prussia, "hard as steel," has no power but steel. The "new Germany," forged in the heat of Prussia's wars, can know only slavery to political compulsion, and Germany is not yet through with war. If one feels real concern toward the "consequences for humanity generally," he must be painfully shocked by Bernhardi's special pleading.

If Bernhardi's book had been buried and lost to the world, there should be a law against unearthing it, but considering its enormous circulation, an author may perhaps be pardoned for referring to these arguments for the sole purpose of showing that their mere utterance produces, in the democratic mind, an immediate hostile reaction, and a sense of repugnance. There is in democracy a quality of open-mindedness and an absence of calculating ambition which, on the whole, we believe, justifies even in our own day the optimism of Kant.

## VI.

War in general arouses feelings quite different from those of a given war in particular, as any German Socialist can testify. We come, therefore, to a consideration of the lines of action characteristic of democracies in the actual conduct of a war, once it is

started. The effect of an excess of democracy upon military discipline was painfully evident in the American revolution. The impromptu generals and "embattled farmers" of the revolutionary armies were primarily devoted to principles of democracy and equality: aptitude for military life was not their most conspicuous quality. Often the companies chose their own captains, and the effect of oratory in advancing men to military command was notable. Militia captains and other inferior officers, as Trevelyan tells us, thought it desirable to make elaborate harangues to their troops with ample references to Cæsar, Pompey and the other classical favorites.

The private soldier was too much aware of his in-born "liberty" and "equality" to be amenable to discipline. It was hard for him to understand why he should lift his cap to a former neighbor whom the fortunes of war had made his superior in rank. If he considered it beneath his dignity to submit to the "Articles of War" drawn up by the Continental Congress he did not accept the invitation to "subscribe". When promised bounties were delayed he might withdraw his valuable services from the army, and it was hard to coax him into overstaying the period (usually short) which his original enlistment had called for. Often he considered the terms of pay and the conditions of service in the colonial establishment preferable to those of the regular army, and in that case it required the greatest inducements to entice him into the latter. Having no true conception of the necessity of rigorous discipline he was often insubordinate, escaping usually with slight punishment.<sup>10</sup>

Uniforms were often lacking, and distinctions between officers and men were commonly obliterated. The assembling of the army at the outset was haphazard, and the issuing of commissions to officers irregular. Congress took many matters into its own unmilitary hands, prescribing discipline, appointing misfit generals whom Washington had to tolerate, rebuking insubordination, degrading guilty officers, and even dictating military operations. All this does not mean that the essential rules of war were disregarded, nor that in warlike ceremonies, such as the exchange of prisoners, the colonists were disdainful of form, as between themselves and the enemy. It does mean that, among themselves, the revolutionary soldiers regarded authority and respect for rank as unimportant. All the most thoughtful statesmen of the time were deploring the excess of personal freedom.

Matters were different in the Civil War, because of its vast proportions and the greater attention to organization and discipline. Dictatorial powers were assumed by Lincoln, and the executive authority was enormously expanded. Before his first Congress met, the President, by such acts as the call for troops and the proclamation of blockade, had irrevocably

<sup>9</sup> F. von Bernhardi, "Germany and the Next War." (Trans. by A. H. Powles.) Chap. I, "The Right to Make War."

<sup>10</sup> C. H. Van Tyne, "The American Revolution," 31, 40; George Otto Trevelyan, "American Revolution," pt. 1, esp. chap. ii.

committed the northern states to a forcible restoration of the union. During the course of the war newspapers were suppressed, martial law instituted in loyal states removed from the seat of hostilities, slaves freed by proclamation, court decisions ignored, and thousands of arbitrary imprisonments made.

These executive acts savored, perhaps, of monarchy. Yet there was, along with it all, a universal tempering of severe rules. Deserters were somehow saved from death; orders against disloyal persons were enforced with discretion; extenuating circumstances were given weight; escape from penalties was made possible by the taking of the oath of allegiance; ignorance of the law was often accepted as an excuse; first offenses were passed over, and spies even were released on the acceptance of stipulated terms. The government, moreover, took the people into its confidence; the motives of the war were frankly avowed, and Lincoln often argued with great care to justify the exercise of unusual powers. On the whole, the prosecution of this grim war revealed a democratic regard for human feeling and a wholesome respect for individual liberty.

England's war policy in the present gigantic conflict has been adduced as evidence that a nation loses its democracy when it takes up arms. The Defense of the Realm Act, to take a conspicuous case of war legislation, does greatly curtail individual liberty. Under this comprehensive measure, and the regulations which it authorizes, a citizen is liable to prosecution by court martial for refusing to answer a question (even though it involve self-incrimination), for keeping homing or carrier pigeons or having wireless apparatus in his possession, for being outdoors in a proclaimed area after prohibited hours, for showing lights after a designated time, for giving information, even indirectly, to the enemy, and in general for doing any act likely (in the opinion of the court martial) to be "prejudicial to the public safety or defense of the realm."

The editor prints news and comments on the war at his peril, for the publication of anything that "might be" useful to the enemy, and of "supposed plans" is prohibited. Officials are authorized to censor publications and private letters, to deport citizens, condemn buildings, seize factories, requisition commodities, and search suspected houses. A court martial may inflict death upon a citizen who commits an offense "with the intention of assisting the enemy." The offense is not defined, jury trial is denied, and the only appeal is to a ministerial officer, the Judge Advocate.

This rigorous measure has been denounced in England as a piece of "parliamentary despotism" worthy only of "uncivilized protectorates." That the war should have subjected the English with all their individualism to such a severe measure is evidence that war is itself a tyrant, which means that the more you have war, the less will the flower of democracy flourish. It is not to be questioned that during war monarchical methods are the most "efficient."

Yet there are certain saving features in the situation. The act is a measure of Parliament: it is not *lex regia*. There is no royal tyranny involved, no executive usurpation, no despotism of a bureaucracy acting through royal proclamation. A civilian wrongly arrested and tried by court martial under the act is not without redress. Distinguished legal opinion holds that, in the case of an unwarranted judgment of a military court against a civilian, an appeal would lie to the regular courts, and that regulations exceeding the limits of the statute are subject to judicial review (for instance, by *habeas corpus* or *certiorari* proceedings), and may be set aside if found to be *ultra vires*.<sup>11</sup> A regulation originally issued under the act, providing that a person arrested without warrant was to be deemed in legal custody, was dropped in the new Consolidated Regulations. As a whole the act did not dispense with the rule of law, but sought to deal effectively with a grim situation, and so to restrain individual acts as to prevent any assistance reaching the enemy. The fact that the act was roundly criticized in England is simply evidence that the British temper is not complacent toward governmental repression, even when such repression is necessary.

One can still detect the earmarks of democracy in the British situation. The criticisms of Kitchener and of the British admiralty after the failure at the Dardanelles brought definite results and forced a complete reorganization of the administration. Such a ministerial backdown in the very midst of a desperate war would have been impossible in a monarchy free from effective popular opinion. Regarding conscription it may be said that an army of four millions had been raised without resort to compulsion, that the number of citizens to be drafted is comparatively small, and that the long hesitation of the government to adopt the measure is evidence of the necessity in England of respecting individual rights. Conscription as a permanent, normal policy is swallowed "like a pill" in Germany.

## VII.

Concerning the question as to what constitute rights in war the contrast is striking between the view which prevails in such a country as Germany or Russia on the one hand, and England or America on the other. In Anglo-Saxon jurisdictions the common law police power theory obtains even in times of emergency rather than the idea of the complete supremacy of force. A German lawyer in war time will quote "*Inter arma silent leges*"; an Anglo-Saxon (with a different emphasis), "*Salus publica suprema lex*." Von der Goltz before the Great War wrote thus: "Accustomed as we are to the phenomena of the present, viz., huge armies and ruthless employment of force, we might almost believe that war and military institutions had worn these natural features from time immemorial. Yet both were always much dependent upon the state of universal civilization, yes

<sup>11</sup> Baty and Morgan, "War: Its Conduct and Legal Results" (Murray, London, 1915), p. 92.

even upon theories, upon the views of right and wrong, and the prejudices of the times. The simple conception of military operations which obtains today, namely, that war, where necessary, revokes all rights incidental to a state of peace, did not obtain in former generations."<sup>12</sup> This is the view of a general, not a lawyer, yet it suggests that the German theory does less to place war under the rule of law than the Anglo-Saxon theory.

It is true that in France (a democracy) you have the *état de siège*, but this does not countenance extreme illegality, and the best thought in France is to the effect that the whole military system should be overhauled in this respect, and that as it stands the *état de siège* is a menace in making possible that return to despotism which the French constantly fear. (France, be it remembered, is a democracy with monarchical survivals.) The American conception of rights in war was evidenced during the Civil War in the jealous watchfulness on the part of the courts to restrict the use of martial law. As a result, the assumed jurisdiction of military tribunals over civilians in regions unaffected by belligerent operations was overthrown, and political prisoners by the hundreds were either released or remanded to the ordinary courts. No such a sweeping military regime as the German *Kriegszustand* would be tolerated by Anglo-Saxons.

That war is inconsistent with democracy seems well borne out by recent events in the world's history. The greatest democratic product of the times, the Russian revolution, though in a sense promoted by the war, is staggering under the task of preserving war efficiency while initiating popular rule. In Germany the democratic reforms which are so long overdue, have brought ministerial crises, but have evidently been deferred till peace comes just as the agitation of the French revolutionary and Napoleonic periods postponed parliamentary and social reform in England. The great American democracy has entered the war and adopted conscription with surprisingly little friction on the whole, yet this action was taken with such evident distaste that nothing but the compulsion of ideals could have accounted for it. War in general has received a set-back in the fact that peace terms must now be squared with the unwarlike ideals of the Russian and American democracies. If this amounts to an abandonment of previous aggressive aims on the part of the Allies, the result will doubtless be fortunate. Conscription in democratic Canada has produced a serious division and crisis, and has succeeded only by reason of the essentially democratic belief that every man owes a like duty to the state. Greece having thrown off her king has limped into the war only because international entanglements beyond her control have made this her true policy. All the larger developments of 1917 seem to confirm the hope that the future belongs to democracy.

Though I realize the difficulty of writing on this topic without qualifying almost every assertion, I should like to conclude with the following propositions, which, I believe, a fair investigation will bear out. A military caste, or war party, has less chance of supremacy in a democratic state, where war is regarded as abnormal, than in a monarchy, where it is considered a natural political function. Democracy tends to overcome the evils of secret diplomacy, while preserving its advantages. The absence of dynastic claims, based on the feudal idea of the state as a patrimony, frees democracies from a fairly constant war-hazard. A democratic people, regarding culture as an attribute of the individual mind, not a standardized product of the government, and conceiving of civilization not as the monopoly of one nation but as the fusion of various tastes and customs, is not likely to use the sword as the agent of imposing its "culture" upon other peoples. When a war is once on, the manner of conducting it preserves, so far as possible, that regard for human life and property in which democracies excel. While there is much stretching of war powers, there is a constant effort to check executive usurpation, and to hold the war administration under the rule of law. The tendency to govern by fear and to adopt methods of "frightfulness" is not strong in a democracy. Though democracies may not be free from irrational inference, nor above international misunderstandings, yet the controlling tendency of their foreign policy is to allay rather than to excite international rivalry. Volunteering still has a large place in democracies even when conscription is employed and standing armies are fewer and smaller than in monarchies. Where democracies do have standing armies, their purpose is defense of independence and neutrality, not aggression. The subjection of the political and diplomatic departments to the military when vital decisions are pending is a monarchy, not a democratic risk. In the matter of war efficiency a democracy may be inferior to a monarchy, but in normal times its people will live a freer life, and in times of stress it will not be found wanting.

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An interesting case of the migration of education and ideals is given by Mr. Henry A. Blake in an article entitled, "The Education of a Nation" ("The Nineteenth Century," November, 1917). The present King of Siam was educated in England at Eton, Sandhurst, and Oxford. He ascended the throne in 1910, and since that time he has devoted himself to solving the problem of raising an inert nation to a virile plane of national consciousness. In morals, in education, in the organization of boy scouts, in military measures, and in the building up of national sentiment, the king has taken a large part.

<sup>12</sup> Von der Goltz, "The Nation in Arms," p. 1.



# The Holy Alliance; Its Origins and Influence

BY W. S. ROBERTSON, PH.D.

One hundred years ago, on September 26, 1815, there was signed at Paris a secret act—an act which was soon designated the treaty of the Holy Alliance. That so-called treaty was signed at an extraordinary juncture in the history of Europe. The far-flung empire of Napoleon the Great had been shattered by a coalition of European nations, and the ex-emperor was on his way to St. Helena. In the ringing words of the great English statesman, George Canning, "The limits of nations were again visible, and the spires and turrets of ancient establishments began to re-appear above the subsiding wave." In March, 1814, the ministers of Austria, England, Prussia and Russia had signed the treaty of Chaumont—the foundation of the Quadruple Alliance—which, ostensibly to secure the peace of Europe, made provisions concerning the maintenance of the balance of power. On June 9, 1815, at the Congress of Vienna the plenipotentiaries of seven powers had signed the great treaty known as the Final Act which, in general, provided for the reconstruction of Europe according to the doctrine of legitimacy. Diplomats at Paris were drawing the last lines in the new map of Europe when rumors were heard of a mysterious treaty which three autocratic monarchs had signed.

The signatories of the act of the Holy Alliance were Alexander I, Emperor of Russia, Francis I, Emperor of Austria, and Frederick William III, King of Prussia. The preamble of the act, invoking the name of "the Most Holy and Indivisible Trinity," declared that those three monarchs, because of "the great events" which had taken place in Europe and because of the blessings that it had pleased "Divine Providence to confer upon those States which placed their confidence and hope" in God alone had become convinced that "the conduct to be observed by the powers in their mutual relations" should be founded upon the sublime truths which were taught by "the eternal religion of God our Saviour." Those monarchs declared that the object of this act was to publish to the world their resolution to take as their sole guide in the internal affairs of their respective states and also in their international relations "the precepts of that holy religion," namely, "the precepts of justice, charity and peace." The body of the act was composed of three articles. The first article declared that the three contracting monarchs would remain united by "the bonds of a true and indissoluble fraternity," that they would "on all occasions and in all places, lend each other aid and assistance," and that in a fraternal spirit they would lead their subjects and their armies "to protect religion, peace and justice." The second article declared that the sole principle in force between the three governments or their subjects should be to perform "reciprocal service," to show "their mutual affection" by unceasing good-

will, and to demean themselves as "members of one and the same Christian nation." The three allied monarchs were to consider themselves as merely delegated by Providence "to govern three branches of the same family, namely, Austria, Prussia and Russia; thus confessing that the Christian nation of which they and their people are a part has in reality no other sovereign than He to whom power actually belongs, because in Him alone are found all the treasures of love, of knowledge, and of infinite wisdom: that is to say, God, our Divine Saviour, Jesus Christ, the word of the most High, the word of Life." The monarchs tenderly recommended their subjects "to strengthen themselves every day more and more in the principles and the exercise of those duties which the Divine Saviour has taught to mankind." The third article declared that those States which solemnly avowed "the sacred principles" of the act, and which recognized that these truths should exercise their proper influence over the destinies of mankind would be "received with as much cordiality as affection into this Holy Alliance."

The circumstances which evoked the act of the Holy Alliance may be suggested in the formula of the age, the man, and the environment. That act was the by-product of a war-weary age. At the Congress of Vienna certain personages had entertained the notion that the sovereigns there assembled might fittingly terminate its sessions by a proclamation pledging themselves to preserve peace throughout Europe. Such a proclamation was actually composed by the secretary of that Congress, Friedrich von Gentz, who was the assistant of the astute Austrian diplomatist, Prince Metternich. This *projet de déclaration* affirmed that "the best guarantee of general tranquillity" was the firm desire of each power "to preserve the rights of its neighbors," and "the joint resolve to make common cause against the power," which, disregarding that principle, should overstep the prescribed boundaries. It declared that the sovereigns, "united by the memory of their past misfortunes," had formed "only one engagement, simple and sacred, that of subordinating every consideration to the inviolable maintenance of peace," and that they had decided to concert measures to throttle every project which tended "to overturn the established order and to provoke anew the disorders and the calamities of war." Gentz declared that when in February, 1815, this project was read to Alexander I, Czar of Russia, by the English diplomat, Lord Castlereagh, it moved that autocrat to tears.

Alexander I was very susceptible to such influences. When a young prince his tutor had made him acquainted with the *Projet de paix perpétuelle* of the Abbé de St. Pierre, which evidently made a vivid impression upon him. As early as 1804 the Czar

had expressed the opinion that a treaty at the end of the great war which would establish "the prescriptions of the rights of nations" upon "clear and precise principles" might secure to Europe some of the valuable results that would flow from universal peace.

In June, 1815, while sojourning at Heilbronn on his way to Paris, the emotions of the imperial idealist, whose character Metternich described as "a peculiar mixture of masculine virtues and feminine weaknesses," had been given a peculiar, religious tone by a Livonian widow, Madame de Krüdener, who considered herself divinely commissioned to teach the Czar her Chiliaistic cult. The devout attendance of Alexander I at the spiritual symposiums of that religious fanatic was largely responsible for the sanctimonious tone of the act of the Holy Alliance. On September 28, 1815, when speaking of this act, Castlereagh said that while in Paris Alexander I had spent "a part of every evening" with Madame de Krüdener, who had "a considerable reputation amongst the few high-flyers in religion" at that capital. A few months later Gentz declared that the Czar had apparently formed the project of the Holy Alliance while in the company of Madame de Krüdener. Several years later the Greek Capodistrias, who had represented Russia in the diplomatic negotiations at Paris, explicitly declared that while in that capital the Czar had drafted the act of the Holy Alliance "in lead pencil with his own hand." Madame de Krüdener is quoted as having said to a German professor: "God willed that I should suggest to the great and pious Emperor Alexander the first notion of the Holy Alliance. The emperor was pleased with my project. He prepared a draft which he submitted to me." In his *Histoire de la Restauration*, Capefigue said: "I have seen with my own eyes the original of this treaty which is written entirely by the hand of the Emperor Alexander, with corrections by Madame de Krüdener. The word *Sainte-Alliance* is written by that extraordinary woman." The evidence at hand accordingly furnishes a basis for the view that Czar Alexander I may be considered as the author of the act of the Holy Alliance. At least, he has as good a claim to the authorship of the Holy Alliance as President Monroe has to the authorship of the famous doctrine which bears his name.

The Czar submitted his project of a treaty to the emperor of Austria and the king of Prussia, as well as to Lord Castlereagh. The latter declared that the Czar developed to him "his whole plan of universal peace." The proposed treaty also became known to Prince Metternich. While no one of those personages felt inclined to approve the Czar's project, yet the monarchs of Austria and Prussia did not wish to spurn it; hence, after the Czar had made some alterations in the text, the act was signed by those two monarchs, as well as by its royal author. It was evidently at the instance of Alexander I that a note, signed by the three monarchs, was at once addressed to the Prince Regent of England inviting him to attach his signature to the act. Early in October the Prince Regent responded to the effect that the forms of the

English constitution prevented him from "acceding formally" to the act of the Holy Alliance, but that he sent his "entire concurrence in the principles" therein expressed. The representations of Alexander I to Louis XVIII, King of France, were more successful. On November 19, 1815, that king signed an act of accession avowing "the sacred principles" which had dictated the treaty. In discussing the treaty of the Holy Alliance, some writers have affirmed that it was subsequently signed by divers other crowned heads of Europe—a statement which it is easier to make than to prove.

A short time after Louis XVIII signed the treaty, on Christmas day, 1815, upon returning to St. Petersburg, the Czar made public the mysterious act, and ordered that it should be read in all the Russian churches. It was subsequently printed in various European journals. The comment of contemporaries varied according to their point of view. In the House of Commons, Mr. Brougham referred to it as an extraordinary treaty which was put forth by the contracting parties "as if they were the monopolists of Christianity." He said that their pretensions justified the "suspicion that they were leagued against some state not Christian, . . . and that they had something in view, which it was not deemed prudent to avow." In reply, Castlereagh, who had privately characterized the treaty of the Holy Alliance as a "piece of sublime mysticism and nonsense," gravely assured the House that the treaty did not threaten hostility to any state: "its object was confined solely to the contracting parties, and breathed the pure spirit of the Christian religion." Further, he declared that if the "spirit which it breathed was one which sincerely animated the emperor of Russia . . . there was nothing upon which he should more sincerely congratulate Europe and the world." Perhaps the keenest critic of the act of the Holy Alliance was the author of the peace proclamation drafted at the Congress of Vienna. In a letter dated February 25, 1816, Gentz spoke of "the so-called Holy Alliance" as "a political nullity," a "theatrical decoration," and a farce. He said that it would "soon be forgotten," and would only "figure in the diplomatic history of the nineteenth century as a monument of the fantasies of men and princes." The Czar soon came forward to defend and to explain his act. In a dispatch to his ambassador in London dated March 18, 1816, he affirmed that the act did not embody any design hostile to non-Christian peoples. A week later, Alexander I issued an apologetic manifesto declaring that he and his Allies had in view "the most efficacious application to the civil and political relations of States" of those "principles of peace, concord, and love which are the fruit of the religion and morality of Christianity. . . . The sole and exclusive object of the alliance can be no other than the maintenance of peace and the coöperation of all the moral interests of the peoples whom divine Providence is pleased to unite under the banner of the cross." Many years later Prince Metternich wrote in his autobiography—a work which was not unmindful

of the secrets of cabinets—that in the Czar's mind the Holy Alliance had "no other object than that of a moral demonstration." The retired diplomat even alleged that this alliance was never afterwards mentioned between the cabinets of Europe. "The Holy Alliance," said Metternich, "was not an institution to keep down the rights of the people, to promote absolutism or any other tyranny. It was only the overflow of the pietistic feeling of the Emperor Alexander, and the application of Christian principles to politics!"

In the annals of diplomatic history the act of the Holy Alliance occupies a place that is unique. The word holy was applied to that act with a peculiar connotation: it was conceived by an emperor of the Greek faith; it was immediately signed by him as well as by a Catholic emperor and a Protestant king. The Spanish historian, Modesto Lafuente, scornfully declared that to apply the name *holy* to that agreement was a "lamentable profanation." The act in question can scarcely be considered as a treaty in the ordinary sense. It was not signed by the ministers of the subscribing monarchs. It contained few specific provisions concerning the relations of the contracting parties. When in a critical mood Gentz said that in the entire context of the act there was no trace of a definite pledge, much less of a diplomatic pledge, or of reciprocal concessions—provisions which were of the very essence of treaties. The declaration that the three monarchs should upon all occasions lend each other aid and assistance was the clause of this strange act which most resembled the terminology of a treaty of alliance. Originally the act of the Holy Alliance was little more than a joint declaration of principles by three autocratic monarchs. That act contained few principles which the Czar might not properly have included in a proclamation. When thus attempting to analyze the act of the Holy Alliance, the writer was reminded of the remark once made concerning the Holy Roman Empire, namely, that that institution was neither holy, nor Roman, nor an empire. In a similar fashion it is not altogether an exaggeration to say that originally the so-called treaty of the Holy Alliance was neither a treaty, nor holy, nor an alliance.

From 1815 to 1822, the "Holy Alliance" was almost inextricably involved with the Quadruple Alliance, or, as it is sometimes designated, the Grand Alliance. That alliance was consolidated by the treaty signed at Paris on November 20, 1815, by England, Austria, Prussia and Russia. The precise relation between the Grand Alliance and the Holy Alliance is one of the riddles of modern European history. Some writers on diplomatic history have been inclined to merge the Holy Alliance in the Grand Alliance. In truth, those alliances were not always kept separate and distinct by their contemporaries. A certain clause in the treaty of November 20, 1815, indeed, provided that, if revolutionary principles should again convulse France and thus "endanger the repose of other States," the contracting powers would

concert among themselves and with the king of France the measures necessary for the safety of their respective States and the tranquillity of Europe. In 1818 at the Congress of Aix-la-Chapelle, the first meeting of diplomats and sovereigns held in accordance with that treaty, France was grudgingly admitted into the Grand Alliance, which thus virtually became a Quintuple Alliance. While at that Congress Czar Alexander I and Capodistrias spoke of the Holy Alliance as a league of European nations, "guaranteeing to each other the existing order of things, in thrones as well as in territories, all being bound to march, if requisite, against the first Power that offended, either by her ambition or by her revolutionary transgressions." Upon this occasion Castlereagh mentioned the "benign principles" of that alliance as "constituting the European system in the matter of political conscience." And Gentz wrote sympathetically of the association of monarchs—the preservers of public order—as composing a "truly sacred union," of which the Holy Alliance was only "the imperfect symbol." In the Russo-Austrian hegemony, which apparently derived some sanction from the act of the Holy Alliance, Prince Metternich, chancellor of Austria, eventually secured and exercised the supremacy.

The activity of Prince Metternich was stimulated by the news of a revolutionary movement which swept over southern Europe. On March 9, 1820, revolutionists induced Ferdinand VII, King of Spain, to accept the liberal constitution of 1812, which established a limited monarchy and proclaimed the liberty of the press as well as the sovereignty of the people. A little later revolutionists compelled Ferdinand IV, King of Naples, likewise to accept the Spanish constitution of 1812. The Neapolitan revolt was considered at the Congress of Troppau by representatives of Austria, England, France, Prussia and Russia. There on November 19, 1820, the plenipotentiaries of Austria, Prussia and Russia signed a protocol declaring that a State where revolutionary alterations took place which threatened other States would be excluded from the "European Alliance" until its situation presented "guarantees for legitimate order and stability." The signatories agreed not to recognize any alterations made in a State by "illegal means." They agreed to restore such a State "to the bosom of the alliance" by peaceful means, or, if necessary, by "*une force coercitive*." They affirmed that the revolution in the kingdom of Naples came within the purview of the protocol and expressed their intention of executing its provisions with the sole object of restoring "liberty to the king and to the nation." They agreed that, if forcible intervention was necessary the Neapolitan kingdom should be occupied by the Austrian army in the name of the contracting monarchs. Accordingly, after the Congress of Troppau had adjourned to Laibach—early in 1821—an Austrian army marched into Italy and restored Ferdinand IV to his throne. But the government of England would not endorse the proceedings of the three autocratic powers. A short time before he became secretary for foreign affairs, George Canning

publicly referred to the State papers of those powers as "foolish and pedantic;" he declared that England's policy should be "a perfect neutrality," and said that the course which England should follow was "on a plank which lay across a roaring stream." Thus did he express dissatisfaction with Metternich's policy of joint intervention by force of arms for the restoration of legitimate monarchs.

Nevertheless, intervention in Spanish affairs was soon the theme of discussion at another Congress. In 1822 at the Congress of Verona, by a diplomatic act, Austria, France, Prussia and Russia took cognizance of the nebulous association of powers known as the Holy Alliance. On November 22, 1822, the ministers of those powers, headed by Metternich, signed a secret treaty which they expressly declared to be an addition to the treaty of the Holy Alliance. In the secret treaty of Verona the contracting parties declared that representative government was as incompatible with "monarchical principles as the maxim of the sovereignty of the people with divine right." They mutually and solemnly engaged "to use all their efforts to put an end to the system of representative governments, in whatever country it may exist in Europe, and to prevent its being introduced in those countries where it is not yet known." They expressed their opinion that "the principles of religion" contributed most powerfully to keep "the nations in the state of passive obedience which they owe to their Princes." As the condition of the Iberian peninsula presented all "the circumstances to which this treaty" had special reference, the contracting parties entrusted to France the task of subduing the Spanish revolutionists, and agreed to assist her by means of a subsidy. The Duke of Wellington, the English representative at the Congress, refused to sign this treaty—henceforth a rift was clearly visible between England and the continental leaders of the Holy Alliance. At the conclusion of the Congress of Verona, the monarchs of Austria, Prussia and Russia sent to their ambassadors at other courts a circular dispatch—signed by their chief ministers—which praised the actions of "their alliance." This dispatch declared that Spain afforded another melancholy example of the inevitable consequences of transgressing the eternal laws of morality; for there legitimate power had been "fettered and turned into an instrument for the overthrow of all rights and all lawful liberty." Further, it declared that rich colonies were justifying their separation from the motherland by the same maxims with which constitutional Spain had built up her public rights—maxims that she wished to condemn in another hemisphere. Evidently Russia, in particular, felt that the success which had crowned the attacks of revolutionists upon their legitimate monarch in the Spanish peninsula, served as an encouragement to the revolutionists in Spanish America. In April, 1823, French soldiers—acting as the informal agents of the Holy Alliance—marched beyond the Pyrenees. They soon overthrew the constitutional government and restored Ferdinand VII to absolute power. When that king—who had invited intervention—was

restored, he proclaimed that the acts of the liberal government were null and void. As Ferdinand VII considered that the monarchs associated in the Holy Alliance were the conservators of monarchical government in Europe, he desired them to restore his sovereignty over the revolted colonies in America.

By the year 1822, Mexico, "Great Colombia," Chile and the United Provinces of la Plata had virtually established their independence of Spain. From time to time sinister rumors reached those States that the Holy Alliance would seek to destroy their autonomy. In that connection Great Colombia—the State which had been placed upon the map of South America by the military genius of Simón de Bolívar—will furnish a striking illustration. As early as March 18, 1822, Manuel Tórres, the Colombian chargé d'affaires at Washington, addressed to President Monroe's cabinet an exposition declaring that certain European powers harbored designs against America. He suggested that political conditions in Europe and America might provoke "a war on the part of the sovereigns that composed the Holy Alliance for the purpose of checking the spread of Republican principles in the New World." About two months later Tórres told John Quincy Adams, the American Secretary of State, that Colombians were jealous of "the European alliance," that they wished to form "an American system" to oppose the political system of Europe, and that they were anxious to have the United States "take the lead in this system." In June, 1823, a special agent of the United States wrote from Bogotá to Washington that the Colombian Vice President, Francisco de Paula Santander, had expressed a fear that, after the Holy Alliance had regulated the affairs of Spain, it would aid the motherland to subjugate Colombia. The government at Washington was also informed that Santander had inquired whether the United States would be willing to unite in a continental confederacy against Europe, "of Constitutional against Anti-Constitutional Governments." And, after the soldiers of France had overthrown the constitutional government of Spain, certain Colombian publicists told Richard C. Anderson, the first American minister to Colombia, that the Holy Allies would next turn their conquering arms against Spanish America. In the days of their fancied insecurity, certain South American patriots accordingly proposed that the Republic of the North should become the champion of American liberty against the powers of the Old Continent.

The intervention of France in Spanish affairs also excited publicists in North America. In the autumn of 1823, President Monroe's cabinet discussed the attitude of the Holy Alliance towards Spanish America. In his precious diary Secretary Adams recorded the views of his associates upon that crucial question. Adams said that Secretary Calhoun was "perfectly moon-struck by the surrender of Cadiz," for he declared that "the Holy Allies, with ten thousand men," would "restore all Mexico and South America to the Spanish dominion." Calhoun also expressed a fear that, after the Spanish-Americans were subjugated,

the Allies would proceed against the United States—"the first example of successful democratic rebellion." Secretary Wirt spoke of the danger of the United States assuming "the attitude of menace" towards the Holy Alliance "without meaning to strike," and raised the question whether or not the United States would oppose the Holy Alliance, if it "should act in direct hostility" against Spanish America. While the virile Adams did not deny that the Holy Allies might make "a temporary impression" in Spanish America for a few years, he emphatically declared that he no more believed that they would "restore the Spanish dominions upon the American continent than that the Chimborazo" would "sink beneath the ocean." He expressed the opinion, however, that, once masters of Spanish America, the Allies would distribute the former colonies of Spain among themselves.

The intervention of the Holy Alliance in Spanish affairs not only alarmed the Americas, but also England. Consequently on August 20, 1823, Secretary Canning sent a proposal to Richard Rush, the American minister in London, to the effect that England and the United States should make a joint declaration against any attempt by a European power other than Spain to subjugate the revolted Spanish colonies by force, or to acquire any part of them "by cession or by conquest." Canning expressed his willingness to agree to a declaration that England did not aim at the possession of any portion of those colonies herself, and that she could "not see any portion of them transferred to any other power with indifference." As he was not able to secure the assent of Rush to a joint declaration, on October 9, 1823, Canning took occasion to inform Prince de Polignac, the French minister in London, of his firm opposition to intervention in the Spanish colonies—an announcement which soon became known to the governments of France, Austria, Prussia and Russia. As is well known, it was partly due to apprehensions concerning the projects of the Holy Alliance, that on December 2, 1823, President Monroe sent that famous message to Congress in which he referred to the political system of the Holy Allies as being essentially different from that of the United States. And in memorable words he said: "We owe it, therefore, to candor, and to the amicable relations existing between the United States and those powers, to declare that we should consider any attempt on their part to extend their system to any portion of this hemisphere as dangerous to our peace and safety." Thus it was that a curious act of the Czar of all the Russias helped to evoke a doctrine which, in conjunction with the policy announced by England, exerted a favorable influence upon the destinies of the new Hispanic States.

This article indicates how the act of the Holy Alliance—conceived in a mood of lofty idealism—was perverted from its original purpose. Those persons who would search the pages of history for a promising example of the international organization of peace will not encounter it in the so-called Holy Alliance, which was a notable attempt to form a system for

the regulation of international affairs. For the coterie of nations which at times evidently acted under the ægis of the Holy Alliance almost forgot the ostensible purpose of the Emperor Alexander I, the "incorruptible spirit" of the act of September 26, 1815. Although these nations apparently aimed to promote universal peace through Congresses composed of their representatives, yet at the height of their power under the leadership of Prince Metternich the act of the Holy Alliance became a covenant between certain continental States—an instrument which they brought forth from the innermost recesses of their chancelleries to furnish a sanction for the stern repression of a revolutionary government in a minor European State. To an extent the international system of Metternich aimed to secure to Europe the political results sanctioned by the Congress of Vienna. Perhaps it is not too much to suggest that those continental powers which became intimately associated for the application of the doctrine of legitimacy may have tacitly constituted an alliance within the Grand Alliance—an alliance which might for convenience, at least, be styled the Holy Alliance. Certainly it is clear that early in the third decade of the nineteenth century Austria, Prussia and Russia had adopted the policy of joint intervention by force of arms in minor European States for the overthrow of constitutional governments and the restoration of legitimist monarchs. In the three Americas the Holy Alliance—which symbolized this policy—will be long remembered because it helped to provoke the announcement of the Monroe Doctrine—the "golden fruit" of the Congress of Verona. But although there are some indications that France or Russia may at times have dreamed of intervention in the protracted struggle between Spain and her revolted colonies, yet investigations of historical scholars make it appear less and less likely that the mysterious Holy Allies ever contracted to intervene for the restoration of Spanish sovereignty in the New World.

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An unsigned article in the "Quarterly Review" for October, 1917, discusses at considerable length "The Bagdad Railway Negotiations." The writer says: "It is indeed well put that, should the Prussian system secure its hold across the great land mass of the globe, from Denmark to Arabia, there would soon be no vital issue, whether in Europe, Asia, or Africa, that would not be decided in Berlin." The history of railway diplomacy and construction in the Ottoman Empire is treated in three periods: the first closing in 1888; the second in 1903; and the third in June, 1914. The author holds that in view of the present war it is a source for gratification that England did not reach an agreement with Turkey and Germany in 1903, since that agreement would have led to the completion of the railway before the present war, and thus have increased Germany's military strength. An excellent map accompanies the article.

# The Importance of the Agricultural Revolution

BY PROFESSOR RAYMOND G. TAYLOR, KANSAS STATE AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE.

It is almost a commonplace in these days to say that the roots of our modern complex social and political life lie somewhere close to the great mechanical changes wrought in eighteenth century England. The fact that there was an agricultural revolution in England, vitally related to the more familiar industrial revolution, and to our own progress, has received but scant notice from American students. To a certain extent all agricultural history has been treated in a more or less perfunctory, detached way, but nowhere else so much as in the case of the agricultural revolution. At best this is a serious oversight. Any account of industry, or of national life, that does not include agricultural development as a vital part of an integrated whole is incomplete and misleading. To quote one of our early societies: "The interests of *Commerce, Arts, and Manufactures* form, with *Agriculture*, an indissoluble union, to which citizens of every class and calling, have it amply in their power to contribute."<sup>1</sup>

The great changes in English agriculture became noticeable early in the eighteenth century. They were not completed until well into the nineteenth, long after the factory system was established. Scientific tillage, new root crops and artificial grasses, rotation of crops, improved live stock and enclosures by Parliamentary act, all helped to make the existence of the small farmer untenable and fit England to supply her swelling industrial cities with food for workers and raw material for power-driven machines. In turn the increased demands from the cities accelerated the agricultural changes, as did also the canals and turnpikes being built all over England. Moreover the awakened mechanical genius of England contributed directly to the new agriculture. Long before the mechanical revolution, farmers were demanding better agricultural implements and more of them.<sup>2</sup> Now the response came in the form of plows, drills, rakes, mowing and threshing machines, scarifiers, chaff-cutters and other tools.<sup>3</sup> A world war and the corn laws following hard on the heels of the industrial revolution completed the agricultural monopoly.

The stories of Hargreaves, Crompton, Arkwright, Cartwright, Watt, Bolton, Brindley, Macadam and Telford, and their great improvements in manufacturing and transportation are familiar to all students. Somewhat less so, but still available, are the records of Lord Townshend and his turnips, Jethro Tull and "horse-hoeing," Robert Bakewell and his "New Leicester" sheep, and Arthur Young, the universal observer and recorder of agricultural knowledge. The

connection between the two great interests is found in the formation of various societies, scientific first and later agricultural. The Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures and Commerce was instituted at London in 1754. The first volume of its transactions appeared in 1788. Until that time its chief activity had been the offering of money prizes and medals for improvements in many lines ranging from agriculture to colonial policies. During this interval the society had given more than three thousand pounds in cash and seventy-two gold and thirty-one silver medals for improvements in agriculture alone.<sup>4</sup> It is further noteworthy that, until the close of the century, rather more than half of each annual volume of its transactions was devoted to agriculture. Members of the Royal Society were glad to contribute to the proceedings of this industrial society, its president, Sir Joseph Banks, for instance, offering so practical a thing as a cure for scab in sheep. The proceedings of the Royal Society, itself, were still closely restricted to "pure science." However, local societies patterned after the older society were formed, especially in the industrial centers of the west of England, and these responded to the new spirit of England. Their membership included a strong representation from the Royal Society and a great number of the leaders in industrial life. The work of the societies at Birmingham and Manchester was colored by their environment, and applied or industrial science as involved in manufactures and transportation and in agriculture as well, found able treatment in their proceedings.<sup>5</sup>

Beginning with the Bath and West of England Society in 1777 and the Highland Society in 1784, many purely agricultural organizations were formed. The last decade of the century saw a tremendous impetus given to the study of agricultural problems. The increasing interest is clearly indicated by the swelling flood of agricultural books of many degrees of worth that appeared. Some of these came from the pens of able men who had given years to the study of practical agriculture on their great estates; some were evolved from the brains of pedantic theorists far removed from the soil. Local societies were multiplied all over the British Isles. Pattern or experimental farms were established in some of the counties. One of the great leaders in this awakening was Sir John Sinclair, as a result of whose activities the Board of Agriculture was incorporated in 1793.<sup>6</sup> The surveys made by the Board and the communications addressed

<sup>1</sup> Philadelphia Society for Promoting Agriculture, *Memoirs*, I, iv.

<sup>2</sup> Baker, John Wynn, *Short Description and List . . . of the Instruments of Husbandry*. . . Dublin, 1769, p. 2.

<sup>3</sup> Prothero, R. E., *English Farming, Past and Present*, 208.

<sup>4</sup> *Transactions of the Society . . . of Arts, Manufactures and Commerce*, Vol. I, pp. 3-5.

<sup>5</sup> *Literary and Philosophical Society of Manchester, Memoirs*, I-III.

<sup>6</sup> *Communications to the Board of Agriculture*, I, preface. Philadelphia Society, I, pp. xxix-xxx.



to it in response to its many inquiries are the basis for much of the present insight into agricultural conditions of the time. The Smithfield Club organized in 1798 perpetuated the work of the old Smithfield Fair in the improvement and increase of live stock and made a national standard for local breeders and clubs. Prizes offered by all of these societies encouraged progress in every form of agricultural activity, so that even the laborers on the farms felt the stimulus in the new movement. In all this the leaders and exponents of the industrial revolution were found working along with the landed aristocracy whose interests were so much at stake.

England's selfish policy and the agricultural opportunities in this country combined to keep back the manufacturing revolution until the Napoleonic wars forced its growth. But it was otherwise with the agricultural revolution. Some of this was native to American soil, some of it was imported. Men of wealth and intelligence owned many of the great farms in a country almost entirely given to agriculture. The failing soil of some of the older sections was already forcing these able men to look about for remedies. The leaders in commercial life in our cities, even in the days of the Revolution, saw that American farming was in a bad way, and began to work for betterment.<sup>7</sup> Besides, there was no English embargo on the export of agricultural ideas. Washington at Mt. Vernon carried on serious experiments in crop rotation and marling the soil of the wornout Virginia hills. He corresponded freely with Arthur Young and even contemplated bringing English experts over to handle his farms.<sup>8</sup> The books of Young and other British writers on agriculture found a prominent place in his library at Mount Vernon. This was but a conspicuous example. Spinning mules and power looms might not be imported from England, but seeds, plants, and, in some cases, improved live stock, and best of all agricultural knowledge came freely.

Local agricultural societies were formed in America almost contemporaneously with the early ones in England. The Charleston, South Carolina, society was founded in 1784. It was the first to propose an

experimental farm. The Philadelphia Society for Promoting Agriculture was formed in 1785 "by some citizens, only a few of whom were actually engaged in husbandry, but who were convinced of its necessity." After meeting more or less regularly for a few years its effects culminated in 1794 in a plan submitted to the legislature for the incorporation of a state society. When this failed interest lapsed and nothing more was heard of the society until it was revived in the winter of 1804.<sup>9</sup> The New York Society for the Promotion of Agricultural Arts and Manufactures was created in 1791 and published a volume of its proceedings the next year. The Massachusetts Society for Promoting Agriculture was incorporated in March, 1792, and its work though fitful was continuous thereafter. The Connecticut organization of the same name was started in 1794 and eight years later was able to publish its accumulated "Transactions" in a pamphlet of twenty-one pages. These early societies offered premiums for experiments in wheat culture, discovery of new fertilizers, recovery of wornout fields, improving wild lands, feeding cows and ewes for milk production and destruction of insect pests—in Massachusetts the canker worm. The Philadelphia list included live stock and dressed meats as well as dairy products. The Massachusetts list included wool clips and the best and most expeditious method of making maple sugar.<sup>10</sup> Olive oil, hops and vine products appeared on the Charleston list. The lists show familiarity with the lists of the London Society of Arts and the English agricultural societies. The Philadelphia plan of 1794 proposed a scheme of agricultural education, including endowed chairs in the University of Pennsylvania and Dickinson College, and the teaching of agriculture in the county and township schools with the co-operation of the county societies which the plan contemplated. In its exposition of the wisdom and feasibility of this "new education" this plan anticipates most of the favorite arguments of present-day advocates of vocational education.<sup>11</sup> The Massachusetts Society began some occasional publications at a very early date. Copious extracts from the proceedings of the Bath, Burlington and Halifax societies were reprinted showing again the guiding influence of English agricultural thought.<sup>12</sup> The membership in these early societies was marked by the presence of all the prominent leaders in public life, commerce and industry, in the respective communities. Washington and Franklin belonged to the Philadelphia Society. John and Samuel Adams, John Hancock, Fisher Ames, Josiah Quincy and Samuel Pomeroy were members of the Massachusetts organization. Nor was the constituency purely local. The lists of honorable members included many in neighboring and distant states of the union and not a few in England. Arthur Young and

<sup>7</sup> Philadelphia Society, I, pp. i-ii.

<sup>8</sup> Haworth, Paul Leland. George Washington, Farmer.

Professor W. C. Abbott, in "Some Unpublished Washington Letters," in the "Nation" (New York), vol. 65, pp. 219-221, gives practically all that is known of James Bloxham whom Washington secured from William Peacy, of Gloucestershire, England, to act as farm manager at Mount Vernon. He served from May, 1786, to June, 1790. His quaint observations on the crude conditions of farming in America, his fear that the negro slaves might poison him, and his request for a "Light an Deasent plow" and some "Sanfine" seed from England throw an interesting sidelight on American agriculture and its English connections. On page 298 of the same volume of the "Nation," Mary S. Beall publishes the original articles of agreement between Washington and Bloxham. Curiously enough, Haworth and other writers on Washington seem to have overlooked this unique item, though it was in print nearly twenty years ago.

<sup>9</sup> Philadelphia Society, Memoirs, I, Preface.

<sup>10</sup> Ibid, pp. xxxi-xxxv. Massachusetts Society, Papers, Vol. I, pp. 13-15.

<sup>11</sup> Philadelphia Society, I, pp. xxiii-xxv.

<sup>12</sup> Massachusetts Society, Papers, I, passim.



other leaders on the other side were honorary members of the American societies. President Samuel Deane, of Bowdoin College, a member of the Massachusetts Society from its beginning, in 1790 brought out his "New England Farmer or Georgical Dictionary, containing a Compendious Account of the Ways and Means in which the Important Art of Husbandry, in all its various branches, is, or may be, practiced to the greatest advantage in this country." The work reached its second edition in 1797. In method and matter it shows clearly the influence of the current English agricultural literature. J. R. Bordley, a Philadelphia business man and member of the agricultural society, who had retired to a farm in Maryland, in 1799 published "Essays and Notes on Husbandry and Rural Affairs." It is confessedly based on the work of Tull and Young supplemented by his own observations and experiments. Bordley seems to have been moved to publish this book because of the failure of the early Philadelphia society to which he had looked hopefully for much help. Even the American Philosophical Society, founded at Philadelphia before the Revolution, admitted to its transactions many contributions to agricultural knowledge.<sup>13</sup>

What has been said of the universal appeal of the agricultural awakening in America, of its connection with the English movement, and of its intimate connection with industry in general is even truer during the early decades of the nineteenth century, the period of the "domestication of the factory system." Few, if any, of our leaders in public life were out of touch with things rural and agricultural. Most of them were direct products of plantation and farm life and keenly alive to its needs. Jefferson and Madison in their old age corresponded with each other and with New and Old World friends on matters of agriculture. Even the questions of agricultural economics presented in the great Roman classics were of vital interest to them. Henry Clay, the sponsor for the American System and the Bank of the United States, imported Hereford cattle. Instances such as these might be multiplied. Even educational institutions responded somewhat to the call, though in no such way as the Philadelphia Society had hoped in 1794. A professorship in chemistry and mineralogy as applied to agriculture was created in the University of Pennsylvania early in the century. This institution and Dickinson College were noted for their attention to applied sciences. It is noteworthy that Thomas Cooper, an English-trained chemist and friend of Priestley and late a manufacturing bleacher and dyer of Manchester, England, held successively the chairs of applied science in Dickinson and the University of Pennsylvania, that at the former place the DuPonts of Delaware were his disciples while at the latter the Pennsylvanians learned the elements of soil analysis and commercial fertilizers from him. Jefferson proposed to have teachers of agriculture in the University of Virginia, and in this he received support from Madison and outspoken approval from Cooper whom

he intended for the "first professor" of his institution, and who afterwards, as President of South Carolina College, never ceased to urge the matter of agricultural education.

The period from 1807 to 1815 saw the foundation of American manufactures. It was also the beginning of American agriculture in the modern sense. About 1810 the Philadelphia and Massachusetts societies became very active. Many others were formed and within a few years they were numbered by scores. A study of the printed memoirs and transactions of these societies at once reveals the close connection between the new interest in agriculture and the industrial revolution then in process. More than ever their personnel included the leaders in manufacturing, commercial and public life. Philadelphia was then our chief industrial and commercial city, comparable in a way to Manchester in England. The Philadelphia Society extended its premiums to cover many new problems in agriculture and even to improvements in household manufactures. It interested itself in roads, bridges and canals and devoted much space to them in its memoirs. From the so-called industrial interests themselves came emphatic proof of the connection between agriculture and industrial growth. The "Emporium of Arts and Sciences" established in 1812, at Philadelphia for the promotion of manufactures devoted a liberal share of its space to agriculture, especially as related to manufactures. Niles' "Weekly Register," established at Baltimore in 1811, was consecrated to protection and manufactures, but eagerly published every item of agricultural advance. The manufacturing enthusiasts rejoiced over the coming of the Spanish Merinos even when some agricultural writers were pessimistic on the subject.<sup>14</sup> The second decade of the century saw a swelling flood of scientific books published in this country, especially at Philadelphia. Largely reprints, revisions and abridgments of English works, they brought to our shores the contemporary English scientific thought. In general applied science was exalted. In this "transit of civilization" agriculture shared generously. The agricultural revolution in England preceded the industrial revolution, but in the end was inseparable from it. The same thing is true in America. As in manufactures and transportation we drew largely from England for our modern beginnings so in a somewhat less degree we are indebted to the mother country for our agricultural revolution in its earlier stages.

In "The Yale Review" for October, Henry Osborn Taylor endeavors to find a reason for the apparent destiny which drives unwilling men, governments and non-combatants to bloody fighting, in his article on "Wisdom of Ages." He reaches no definite conclusion save "for good and ill, the war has re-energized individuals and nations," while "restraint and sacrifice are needed still in order to rationalize or emotionalize the currents of human conduct."

<sup>13</sup> American Philosophical Society, Early Proceedings, passim.

<sup>14</sup> Massachusetts Society, Vol. I, No. 5. Niles' Register, Vols. I-VIII.

# The Freshman History Course at Louisiana State University

BY PROFESSOR MILLEDGE L. BONHAM, JR.

IN THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE for April, 1917, appeared a group of articles on the elementary college course in history. Concerning the field of such a course, Prof. A. B. Show, of Stanford, observed: "Every man is fully persuaded in his own eyes that the thing which he is doing is the best thing to do." This sentence led me immediately to write a letter (published in the MAGAZINE for September) explaining that at Louisiana State University the history teachers were giving *not* the course they considered *best*, but that which they found most *practical*. Inquiries for a fuller exposition of this "practical" course induced me to impose the present paper upon the patience of the editor and his readers.

For several years Prof. Walter L. Fleming gave practically all the history offered at Louisiana State University. The freshman course, as stated in the catalogue was: "History 1-2: Essentials of History: (1) Orient, Greece and Rome; (2) Medieval and Modern Times." Substantially the same as that offered in most other colleges, this course was required of all freshmen in the College of Arts and Sciences and in the Teachers' College, and was an elective for agricultural and engineering students. Once in a while a law student took it. At the time I became affiliated with this institution (1912), Doctor Fleming was using as texts in History 1-2, Seignobos' "Ancient Civilization," followed by Robinson's "Western Europe." These were used through the session of 1915-1916. Doctor Fleming and I were in perfect accord in holding that as a "background" for political science, economics, sociology, law, literature; as a preparation for further work in history, and as an introduction to college methods of study, and the use of the library, a course in general history is the best for the beginners—freshmen, in this case. As to the method—we also agreed perfectly that formal lecturing is not the best one for freshmen. Accordingly we had our students recite upon the text, make oral and written reports upon assigned topics, and hand in a weekly summary or outline of the collateral reading done the previous week. Occasional tests and quizzes were given. Hardly once a term was a whole period consumed by a lecture, though the instructors commented upon the recitations, supplemented and explained the texts. For the session of 1914-15, Professor Fleming dropped Seignobos at the beginning of the session, and added contemporary history, based upon periodicals, at the end. I continued to use both Seignobos and Robinson.

Like every other state, Louisiana has a varied assortment of high schools, ranging from the three-teacher rural school to the fully equipped and

manned city school. Naturally, the secondary instruction in history varies with the teacher, the size of the class, the library facilities, etc. The first, second and fourth "blocks" recommended by the Committee of Seven are offered by all the schools. No provision is made for English history, and the State Board of Education has not adopted a text in that subject. We found that while the majority of our freshmen badly needed a course in general history, they did not appreciate that fact. Having had a high school course in medieval and modern history not more than two years before, they could not understand why they should "review" it in college. Hence most showed little interest in the course. Each year we had individual graduates from some schools and whole classes from others who had been so well handled in the secondary course that they might have been permitted to waive History 1-2 had there been any other suitable course to substitute for it.

The catalogue for 1915 announced that during the session of 1915-1916, two divisions of freshmen history would be offered. "History 1-2: Outlines of European History," practically the old "Essentials" course, was for students who had not had an unusually good high school course in history. For students who were better prepared, "History 1a-2a: European History with Special Attention to English History," was offered. As the head of the department (Doctor Fleming) was a member of the faculty committee on classification, it was feasible to direct most of the freshmen to the divisions for which they were best suited. Professor Fleming, Dr. C. C. Stroud and I gave the freshman courses this year. Doctor Stroud had only sections of "1-2," Doctor Fleming had only "1a-2a" (I believe), while I had one section of each. Substantially the same methods were used in both divisions, as indicated above for "1-2." Cheyney's "Short History of England" and "Kendall's "Source Book" were the texts in "1a-2a." Through parallel reading and the comments of the teacher, it was sought to give the "general" ramifications and background needed for a college course.

Though Cheyney's book is not exactly a college text, as it was not used in the high schools of the state, and no other of a suitable nature and price was then obtainable, we felt warranted in using it, and the event justified us. The increased interest, the additional zeal displayed by students in "1a-2a" convinced us that the experiment certainly merited a further trial. During the session of 1916-1917, then, both divisions were given again, one section of each being given by Doctor Fleming and myself. As

stated in the letter mentioned above, I made a comparison of the results of the mid-year examinations in my two sections. Though I was personally more interested in "1-2," and had a smaller section thereof, that in "1a-2a" did better. Of twenty-seven students in "1," only eighteen, or 66 2-3 per cent., passed the examination; thirty out of thirty-two, or 93 per cent. plus, passed in "1a." Professor Fleming's experience was similar. Of course, not all of this difference could be attributed to the difference in courses: "1a" had a better prepared set of students, to begin with. Doctor Fleming had discontinued the use of Kendall's "Source Book," this session, which enabled him to complete the work in English history sooner, and finish the session for his section with a rapid summary of modern history.

In the light of two years' experience with the two divisions, we felt compelled to announce in the catalogue of 1917 only one course for the present session. This is "History 1-2. English and Continental European History," which "is designed to take up the work in history where the high school work ends. Since high schools in Louisiana place special emphasis upon classical, medieval and American history, the plan of this course is to emphasize the history of England and of modern Europe. During the first term, while not neglecting continental history, the work of the class is centered upon the history of England to the close of the seventeenth century. The second term is devoted to eighteenth and nineteenth century history, English and continental."

The resignation of Doctor Fleming, to accept the chair of history at Vanderbilt, has devolved all the freshman work for this session upon me. I have found it expedient to reduce the number of sections to three, in which I am endeavoring to carry out the specifications just quoted from the catalogue, on the line agreed upon by Doctor Fleming and myself. In two of the sections I am using as the text for the first term Larson's "Short History of England," and in the third section, Cheyney. I expect to accompany, then follow these, during the second term, with a text in modern European history. By that time, it is believed, the freshmen will have gotten far enough away from high school work and learned enough of college methods to appreciate a college course in modern history.

Now as to methods. The first two weeks of the term were spent in explaining the nature and purpose of the course, methods of study, note-taking, the use of maps, atlases, indices, reference works, etc. The chief contribution of ancient civilization were pointed out, as well as the connection with English history, then the study of the text was begun. Besides the text, each student is required to have a special form of notebook (Blackwell-Wielandy, 809C), which has loose leaves, 7½ by 4½ inches, with a half-inch margin ruled at the top and left of one side of the sheet. Assignments to the text are made by topics, which are posted in the library, with a list of

parallel references under each. At the first meeting of the class, each week, the notebooks must be handed in, containing an outline of the text, through the current topic, with an outline of the previous week's parallel reading. These outlines are written upon the ruled side of the page, lengthwise. The other side is reserved for class notes, written crosswise. The notebooks are checked up the same day they are handed in, and returned, usually that afternoon, to the students. Notes are taken in accordance with printed "suggestions," of which each student is given a copy. These directions were adopted by me from a similar set to which I was introduced by Dr. F. A. Ogg, of the University of Wisconsin, and Dr. A. I. Andrews, of Tufts College, when all three of us (and Dr. M. W. Tyler, now of the University of Minnesota) taught at Simmons College.

Recitations, based upon the text, are held at each of three meetings each section has weekly. Students are encouraged to amplify their replies with material drawn from their collateral reading. Where it seems necessary, the reply of the student or the statement of the text is commented upon, corrected or supplemented by the instructor. Students are encouraged to add to, but not interrupt one another's answers. Since the sections are large—thirty-two to forty-four students each—and some students are timid or indifferent, others interested and aggressive, careful planning is necessary to ensure that every student has some opportunity to recite each month. Generally, I find it best to make out a list of those to be called upon. This list is not alphabetical, is not arranged according to sexes, and the same student may be called on two days in succession, or even twice during the same period. But by means of it, I manage to give every student, even the most bashful and uninterested, several chances to recite. Of course volunteer additions and corrections are permitted and encouraged, as said above.

For monthly tests, quizzes, term examinations and the like, all students are held responsible for the text and for any additional points brought out in class, whether by students or instructors. Notebooks are again evaluated as part of the final examination. The usual aids, such as blackboards, charts, maps, atlases, genealogical tables, and other illustrations are utilized. Occasionally special events, epochs, characters, documents or characteristics are assigned for written reports. For example, "Write a thousand-word essay on the synod of Whitby," or the restoration of the coinage by Elizabeth, or Florence of Worcester's Chronicle, or Celtic commerce, or Egbert, etc.

Monthly grades are posted, with explanatory notes, to show the cause of poor ratings, such as unexcused absence, frequent tardiness, poor notebook, failure to hand in reports or notebooks, and the like. Opportunity is given students to discuss their difficulties with the instructor, in order to remedy deficiencies. When written tests are given, every paper is marked in red ink and returned to the student.

Believing that historical events are important—

other things being equal—in direct ratio to their bearing upon present institutions and conditions, every opportunity is seized to connect the past with the present and the local; to correlate the narrative of the text with recent and nearby events or facts, as well as to associate English history with general. For example, to-day (November 5, 1917), in answer to a question about the Venerable Bede a student mentioned that he died in 785. It was pointed out that this was three years after the battle of Tours. This city being located on the map, the Loire was followed up to Orleans, and the obvious connection with New Orleans was supplied by the class. Proceeding back down the river to Nantes, Henri IV, the Edict, Louis XIV and the Revocation, the migration of the Huguenots, some of whom eventually reached Baton Rouge, and have descendants there to-day,

known to the class, were all associated with the lesson of the day.

Part of the first meeting each week is devoted to current events, and a constant effort is made to develop in the student the habit of using daily papers and weekly and monthly magazines, as well as the more formal reference works. It is not a part of the purpose of this paper to discuss methods in current events. That has already been well done in this magazine.

Let me repeat, in conclusion, that we should prefer to give a course in general history, the first term, to all freshmen; but experience has convinced us that a course in English history, with general applications gets better results. Doubtless French history would do as well—perhaps better in Louisiana—but no suitable text is available. Here is the opportunity for some specialist in that field to write one.

## Ancient History in a Technical High School

BY H. REID HUNTER, TECHNOLOGICAL HIGH SCHOOL, ATLANTA, GA.

One of the most serious problems of the teacher of ancient history is to make the subject really interesting and practical. One of the recognized fundamental principles of teaching is to tie up the unknown with the known and to teach those subjects which have a social or functioning value. The average student who comes into the high school has few experiences or ideas with which to tie up much of the data that is contained in the average ancient history text-book, and as a result, many students find ancient history dull and lifeless. There are many teachers who are of the opinion that much of the material found in the average ancient history text should be eliminated, and a few in technical or vocational schools contend that ancient history should not be taught at all.

In order to make the ancient history more vitally interesting and lifelike, a number of plans have been tried at the Atlanta Technological High School, one of which has proved to be a great success. To understand the working of this plan it is necessary to say a word about the aims and purposes of the school where this experiment has been made. The work done in this school is far ahead of that done in the old type of manual training schools. Much intensive work is done in the semi-vocational subjects, such as elementary mechanics, industrial chemistry, physics, printing, forge shop, cabinet making, pattern making, machine shop, machine design, architectural drawing and concrete work. In addition to these semi-vocational studies thorough work is done in the so-called classical studies, as English, history, Latin, Spanish, spelling, and German. It is the purpose of the school to give thorough training in the fundamental subjects, but at the same time to lay particular stress on those studies which will train the student so that he may enter into the industrial life of the community

and readily become a producing member of society. Many of the students on the completion of the four-year high school course enter the sophomore class at such schools as the Alabama Polytechnic Institute or the Georgia School of Technology, where they specialize in particular lines of work begun in the high school.

In all courses, in addition to doing the more or less conventional work, special stress is given to those topics which give expression to the ideals of the school. It is sometimes rather difficult to do this with ancient history, but an attempt has been made and considerable progress has resulted. One phase of the ancient history work is the following plan: At suitable times during the year emphasis is placed on the vocational and industrial topics, such as Irrigation Projects of Egypt, The Ship Building Industry of the Phœnicians, The Manufacturing System of the Phœnicians, Construction of Public Buildings by the Greeks and Romans, Road and Bridge Building, Roman Machines, Plumbing, Water Systems, Harbor Improvements, Sewer Construction, Agricultural Implements, the Sciences, and many other allied subjects. In brief, this material may be divided into three parts: Architecture, Mechanics, and Engineering.

In handling these subjects or projects, as we call them, much parallel reading is done in the school and city libraries, where the students work out the details, and sometimes draw rough freehand pencil sketches of the object being studied. These sketches, after being approved by the history teacher, are carried to the drawing hall where they are submitted to the drawing teacher, and after a discussion as to the methods of procedure, a pencil drawing, a tracing, and sometimes a blue print is made. To illustrate the use of the mechanics side—one of the most in-

teresting topics studied last year was Roman War Machines. The general principle of the lever was reviewed, the utilization of the lever by Archimedes, the efficiency of the machines such as the battering ram, catapult, onager; triremes were taken up and discussed in class; and how the present European war has led to a revival of the use of many of these machines. Drawings were made of the most important machines, and students afterwards working in groups made small models in the shop. The students also took the general topics of Roman Machines. They found interesting material on Roman pumps, water wheels, plows, carts, reapers, oil mills and grain mills.

The architectural problems of the Greeks and Romans are well adapted to this work. One of the most interesting projects studied was the Greek temple. After the Greek religion had been studied, we took up a rather intensive study of the greatest of Greek temples—the Parthenon. After the ground plan, building materials, lighting, decoration, and other principal features had been discussed in class, the students started on their search for pictures and drawings. Pen and pencil sketches were made of the ground plan, front elevation, cross section, columns, lighting arrangement, pediment, architrave, frieze, and other minor details.

Under engineering projects we made a study of Roman engineering achievements as shown in their bridges, roads, aqueducts, sewers, race-courses, amphitheatres, and monumental arches. We were able to tie up much of this work with local problems.

The plan has been in full operation only about two years, hence it is hard to evaluate the work in terms of far-reaching results. Some of the immediate results are as follows: It has greatly stimulated a livelier interest in the study of ancient history itself; it has made it easier to get students to do collateral reading; it has enabled us to correlate history with drawing, science, shops, and architecture; it has made it possible to give expression to the aims of the school as never before. While this work has been in progress we have found quite a number of students who have talent in architectural drawing. The work begun in the history department has led the drawing department to introduce two courses in architecture, and in co-operation with the history department we are giving a half year course in the history of architecture. Many of the students who have made good records in this work have gone into architect's offices as tracers and assistant draftsmen. A few of the more ambitious students are now studying architecture at schools specializing in this subject.

The following are some of the topics which have been used to advantage where the plan has been tried:

1. Oriental history—the Great Pyramid, Xerxes' Bridge across the Hellespont, Temple of Luxor, Tomb of Cyrus the Great, irrigation in Egypt, and a Persian chariot.

2. Greek History—Lions' Gate at Mycenæ, plan of the City of Athens, Parthenon, Greek house, Greek

orders of architecture, oil mills, plan of the City of Alexandria, harbor and town of Piræus, an Athenian trireme, and Greek theatres.

3. Roman History—An Etruscan arch, Roman military standards and insignia, bridges, aqueducts, military roads, Cæsar's bridge across the Rhine, amphitheatres, war machines, Colosseum, Roman orders of architecture, Pantheon, agricultural implements, Roman homes, military camps, Circus Maximus, Trajan's column, and public bath-houses.

The following sources contain pictures and historical data on the subjects indicated:

#### ROMAN ROADS, BRIDGES AND AQUEDUCTS.

Johnstone, "Private Life of the Romans," pp. 282.

Platner, "Ancient Rome," pp. 124.

Preston and Dodge, "Private Life of the Romans," pp. 185.

Adams, "Roman Antiquities," pp. 488.

Tucker, "Life in the Roman World of Nero and St. Paul," ch. 2.

Harper, "Dictionary of Antiquities."

#### ROMAN MACHINES.

Ashdown, "Arms and Armor."

Lacombe, "Arms and Armor."

Harper, "Dictionary of Greek and Roman Antiquities."

"Scientific American," Vols. 68, 89, 93, 94.

Johnstone, "Private Life of the Romans."

Smith, "Dictionary of Antiquities."

Bennett, "Beginner's Latin" (introduction).

Davis, "A Day in Old Athens."

Forman, "Stories of Useful Inventions."

#### EGYPTIAN ARCHITECTURAL SUBJECTS.

Ferguson, "History of Architecture," Vol. I.

Breasted, "History of Egypt."

Sturgis, "History of Architecture."

Seiss, "Miracles in Stone."

Smyth, "Our Inheritance in the Great Pyramid."

West, "Ancient History" (revised edition).

Procter, "The Great Pyramid."

#### GREEK ARCHITECTURAL SUBJECTS.

Sturgis, "European Architecture."

Gwilt, "Architecture."

Johnstone, "Private Life of the Romans."

Hamlin, "History of Architecture."

"History of Architecture and Ornament" (International Textbook Co.).

Davis, "A Day in Old Athens."

Butler, "Story of Athens."

Webster, "Ancient History."

Morey, "Outlines of Greek History."

Mahaffy, "Old Greek Life."

#### PHŒNICIANS.

Rawlinson, "Story of Phœnicia."

Souttar, "Short History of Ancient Peoples."

Rawlinson, "Manual of Ancient History."

Williams, "Historian's History of the World."

# Timely Suggestions for Secondary School History

PREPARED UNDER THE DIRECTION OF FOUR COMMITTEES OF HISTORIANS IN CO-OPERATION WITH  
THE NATIONAL BOARD FOR HISTORICAL SERVICE.

## I. Ancient Democracy and the Laboring Class

BY PROFESSOR G. W. BOTSFORD, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY.

In emphasizing the contribution of the Greeks to art, literature, and philosophy, we are inclined to minimize their vast advances in government and society. It is clear that their Minoan predecessors in Crete lived under the same absolutism as the dwellers on the Nile, and that the germs of the republic were introduced into Greece by the "Indo-European" invaders. We find accordingly in the "Iliad" of Homer strong Minoan traditions of despotism mingled with the actualities of an aristocratic republic, in which the king is straitly limited by the nobles. The "Odyssey" presents at Ithaca a picture of a kingless country misruled by a group of turbulent aristocrats. Here are glimpses of the process by which, in the civilized world, the republic came into being. The loving care of the king for his people, like that of a father for his children, vanished along with the monarch; and both Hesiod and Solon bitterly complain of the hard-hearted nobles evilly banded for the exploitation of the masses.

Meanwhile the gradual diffusion of economic prosperity and of intelligence, involving military and political ambitions, over a widening circle of the population tended to broaden the civic franchise. The process continued till in progressive States like Athens democracy was established. Whereas the policy of the aristocratic régime had been to reduce the commons to serfdom or actual slavery, the more liberal governments, and generally in proportion to their advancement toward democracy, aimed in various ways to lift the submerged classes to the plane of respectable citizenship. We find this policy especially successful in Periclean Attica; nowhere else in Greece were the farmers so prosperous; and there was a total absence of paupers outside the physically unfit. As the resources of the community, however, were limited, a humanitarian policy militated against the admission of aliens to the citizenship, while religious feeling which identified God with Blood cooperated in favor of an exclusive citizen body.

It has sometimes been urged that the Athenians lived in ease at the expense of others—slaves, alien residents, and tributary allies—and were therefore not democratic in any modern sense. In answer it may be said that careful inspection shows the great majority of Athenians gaining all or a large part of their living by the labor of their hands, and, in contrast with oligarchs, treating both slaves and resident aliens with notable gentleness and humanity. As regards the allies, the majority in every State preferred the rule of Athens to independence, a condition in which they would have been open to foreign con-

quest and subject to exploitation at the hands of their own oligarchs. In a word, the attitude of the Athenian majority toward these less privileged classes was one of increasing benevolence, which, reinforced by the levelling principles of sophistic teaching, contained the germ of a universal democracy. The political development from the seventh to the fourth century B. C. made increasingly for the improvement, not only of citizen laborers, but of all less privileged classes with which the government came into contact. In the fourth century progress was delayed, and the State weakened, by socialistic experimentation. It was at this time that, mainly through democratic development, the laboring classes reached a height of political, social, and economic well-being to which they did not again attain till comparatively recent times.

That no further advance took place is obviously due in the main to the encroachment of imperialism; for the notion that Hellenic democracy had reached the limit of its capability is absurd; it is in fact an error of modern historical logic to demand that the Greeks should have accomplished in decades what we have achieved through the struggles of centuries, and to assume that the very founders of political life were alone of all men incapable of learning by experience.

The military monarchy of Philip and Alexander served merely as a transition to the Hellenistic age. In this new condition many a Greek city-state, shorn of its independence, became practically a municipality in a great kingdom. Patronized as a rule by the king, it enjoyed local freedom on sufferance only. The environment of these communities and of those which lay outside the kingdoms was such as to foster perpetual fear and servility. Notwithstanding many exhibitions of generous or of heroic character in states and individuals, the historian is compelled to regret a general decline in manliness with the passing of the older freedom.

Different was the condition of those Greeks who left their native land to undertake private business throughout the Hellenistic kingdoms, or to assist the kings in the administration of their realms, or to settle as military colonists on the kings' lands. It was economically well with those Hellenes who could join the class of exploiters of a conquered population, but ill enough with the considerable number who sooner or later sank to the condition of subjects. There was an appreciable deterioration of the laboring class from the fourth century to the Hellenistic age—due largely to a lapse of interest on the part of the gov-

ernment. In the administrative documents of Hellenistic Egypt, for example, we search in vain for that benevolence which was so conspicuous in early time, even in the Egypt of the Pharaohs. In the Roman empire Hellenistic conditions were perpetuated and extended. The *Principes* stood toward the provincials as a shepherd to his flock (Tiberius) or as a

parent to his children (the Antonines); but in general his benevolence could not reach the peasants. Gradually they fell into serfdom, from which they were freed in early modern times; and it is only in recent years that laborers have been regaining the social, political, and economic advantages which they enjoyed under the Greek democracy.

## II. The Interest of Seventeenth Century England for Students of American Institutions

BY PROFESSOR WALLACE NOTESTEIN, UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA.

The historians when they come to review this war will have something to say about the far-reaching effects of the teaching of history in Germany—and in America. It is not alone the Irish and the German-Americans who were reluctant to see our country fighting with Britain, but many of old American stock, who had not forgotten "Tarleton's men" or General Gage. That we had received a legacy of English institutions and traditions was a commonplace that had been almost forgotten, if ever realized, by many otherwise intelligent Americans. That fact the teachers of English history have a chance to emphasize, and so to remove some of the prejudices almost necessarily accumulated in the study of the American Revolution. In particular the teacher, in dealing with the seventeenth century—which comes logically as well as chronologically before the century of the Revolution—has a chance to lay the proper groundwork in the student's mind.

For those who would make clear what we owe to English institutions, the historical works are at hand. Men such as Andrews, Cheyney, Osgood, E. B. Greene, Channing and Beer have given us the text and comment. From their writings the teacher can gain the background from which to give American history its setting as well as to give English history a fuller meaning. The student can hardly be told too often that he is dealing with the first part of American history—school directors eager to eliminate English history from the program might be told as well. The connections must of course be illustrated. The relation between the English parish and the New England town-meeting offers an example, but there are many. If such matters are presented as simply as honesty will permit and with some color of historical imagination, the student will take hold of them. He may come to realize that the boats that brought Puritans to Boston and planters to Jamestown brought not only men and furniture, but less visible and more durable things.

Not only the heritage of England to America but her contribution to the world, orderly self-government, can be taught in connection with the seventeenth century. Usually the high school student at about the time he is studying English history is in the midst of civics and is finding it interesting. The teacher can

set forth three fundamental civic facts of English history that belong to a considerable degree in the seventeenth century; he can show the significance of the growth of the functions of parliament, of the beginnings of the party system and of the cabinet.

The rights of parliament were won, possibly to a greater degree than we always realize, in the century and a half before the American Revolution. The more we examine the parliamentary debates of late Elizabethan and of Stuart times, the more we suspect that the Tudor parliament was largely a registering body, doing pretty much what the Administration wished. If it complained sometimes, so does the Reichstag. It would not be a long cry from Peter and Paul Wentworth and the other disgruntled spirits of Elizabeth's parliaments to those discontented Social-Democrats, Herr Haase, Herr David and their friends—though we must not press the comparison to sovereigns. It was with the early years of James' reign that there grew up, owing to special circumstances, but circumstances that were almost sure to arise, a group of earnest pushing men who knew what they wished, who planned legislation—a new thing, really—and strove to put it through. When they found themselves thwarted by the Privy Counsellors, such men as Eliot, Hakewill, and Coke went around to the house of that antiquary and friend, Sir Robert Cotton, to consult his manuscripts; they went to the Tower, and tracked down the precedents that would support them at Westminster Hall. They dug back into the records of Lancastrian times—when parliament had been winning some concessions from the sovereign—and turned up many such precedents as they needed, precedents, which no doubt honestly enough, they magnified, until they had reconstructed a whole parliamentary system that had never existed—the tradition of which hardly escapes us to-day—and began holding up that system to the government. Upon that none too well grounded foundation they developed a theory of parliament and its rights. By their work, by the slow accretions of one slight victory after another, sometimes merely in trifles of procedure, by the rapid accretions of the Long Parliament, then by wars and the lessons learned from those wars, and at length by the most quiet of revolutions, parliament gained those rights of "functioning," which our Congress has long taken for granted.



Hardly less important is the beginning of the party system. The men who hunted down precedents under the early Stuarts met and worked together. From 1610 on they formed a kind of "Opposition" to his Majesty. Early in the reign of Charles I, as early indeed as 1626—we find them dubbed the "country party" as contrasted with the "courtiers." Gardiner sees in the lines drawn on February 8, 1641, those between modern English parties. Is it carrying matters too far back to say that Sir Edward Coke, Sir John Eliot, Sir Dudley Digges, and their associates were the earliest Liberals, or Whigs—for they were more nearly the latter. Such teaching presupposes that the student understands the parties of to-day. And he should understand them, I think, long before he comes to recent history. The meaning of the play is better grasped—and the play is seldom less interesting—if the listener knows how it is going to end. If the student sees in the several groups that made up the two warring parties of the Civil Wars, the similarity to the groups that compose the parties to-day, he will have learned what will make the past and present more real, and he will be in a better position to understand the first part of American history.

The cabinet is no less significant, though less a part of the seventeenth century. About its working to-day we know much; about its evolution we are still learn-

ing from the young American scholar, E. R. Turner, and from English scholars. The high school student is not too immature to appreciate the main features of the cabinet, as a responsible body, and to realize its wide use in the world, even the demand on the part of certain factions in Germany for its adoption. Here, too, the student must know the system as it works to-day—a boy likes to see the thing working and then hunt back. How it came to work so, is rather strong meat for those below collegiate grade. But the seventeenth century should not be passed without some efforts to trace the beginnings of that most flexible and smooth-working piece of machinery. It should of course be made perfectly clear that the close committees of James I and Charles I's Privy Councils, and the cabal of Charles II, all of them, fell far short of a cabinet.

Parliament, parties, and cabinet, these are obvious facts of English history, but their meaning seems to have escaped too many. What Americans owe to England has escaped them even more. If the meaning of these facts is ever to be appreciated in this country, it will have to be through the teachings of the high school. The teacher could hardly wish a better chance than to interpret them to young people who so easily accept and revere "democracy" and who so seldom understand its history.

### III. Some Aspects of American Experience—1775-1783

BY JAMES SULLIVAN, PH.D., HEAD OF DIVISION OF ARCHIVES AND HISTORY, UNIVERSITY OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK.

In view of the present war and the way in which by successive steps, we were gradually forced to take up arms, it is interesting to note some parallels with our War for Independence.

The colonists, like ourselves, did not want war. It was for them, as for us, largely a question of going into it, or giving up principles which were felt to be right, and they chose the former. Even after the so-called Olive Branch Petition to George III, and his ministers had failed, and the people of the colonies found themselves in conflict with British arms, they had no clear notion, as Washington testifies, of severing themselves from the mother country. They saw a conflict of resistance for justification and it was only gradually that it dawned over them that the fight was an irreconcilable struggle which could only be settled by separation.

To any sane person the chances for success against the power of Great Britain must have seemed hopeless. The colonists had no central government, no army or navy, no money, no allies, and within their midst there was a large body of people who were hostile to the idea of entering an armed conflict with the mother country.

To organize an army was a difficult thing. In many of the colonies there were loosely organized

bodies of militia—that is groups of men subject to call for military service. In most cases, however, these men met irregularly and were imperfectly organized and poorly trained. When called, they assembled slowly and their training consisted of a few short drills, a day's musketry practice, and some sham battles. In some of the colonies they never came together at all. Massachusetts early urged Congress to take over the control of the army which was gathering about Boston, but Congress was slow in doing it. Finally, however, it did so and put Washington in charge of it. By this act the troops which had been drawn from the four New England colonies were made a continental army under the control of Congress and of a general appointed by it. When Washington took control everything was in great disorder. The equipment of the troops, their uniforms, the terms of enlistment, the methods of selecting officers, the size of the companies and the regiments, were as various as the colonies furnishing them.

Out of all this chaos Washington created his continental army—the Line—as it came to be called, but not without much discouragement. In one of his letters he says: "Such a dearth of public spirit, and such want of virtue, such stock-jobbing, and fertility in all the low arts to obtain advantages of one kind or

another, in this great change of military arrangement, I never saw before, and pray God . . . I may never be witness to again." By January 1, 1776, the new Continental army was completely organized. Throughout the war bodies of militia from the various colonies gave it assistance and were in turn assisted by it. The Line was recruited by the volunteer system, but difficulties were soon encountered in getting a sufficient number. Bounties had to be resorted to and these were offered sometimes in the form of money, land or clothing. Large numbers of the men after getting their bounties deserted. Some of them enlisted again under different names and from different places in order to get another bounty. Washington had frequently to lament the abuses of the system.

Of greater difficulty even than getting an army was getting money to pay the army, to buy equipment and provisions, to secure ordnance and ships, and to meet the expenses of the government generally. As Congress had no authority to raise money by taxation, resort was had almost immediately to the issuance of paper money and before the war was over nearly \$250,000,000 of this "continental" money had been issued. This had no specie behind it, but each state was supposed to make provision for a pro rata redemption. This some of the states did only partially, and others not at all. By 1780 it took forty paper dollars to get one silver dollar and by 1781 it took one hundred. "Barber-shops were papered in jest with the bills; and the sailors, on returning from their cruise, being paid off in bundles of this worthless money, had suits of clothes made of it."

Another method of getting funds used by Congress was to requisition the states for certain proportionate amounts, but these sums seldom came in full and towards the close of the war ceased to be honored at all. In 1780 Congress had to resort to the method of asking the states to furnish supplies in kind instead of in money.

A third method of raising money was by domestic and foreign loans. To float the domestic loan, offices were established in each state and indentured notes to bear interest at 4 per cent., then at 6 per cent., were issued. The amount first attempted to be raised in this way was \$5,000,000, but the subscriptions fell short of \$4,000,000. When Congress succeeded in floating a foreign loan, however, the credit was improved and larger domestic loans were made possible. Money was obtained from abroad in the form of gifts or subsidies from France and Spain, and also in the form of loans from the same governments and from bankers in Holland. Little of actual money from these, however, reached this country, the proceeds being expended in buying supplies over there. This is, coincidentally, exactly what the countries of Europe are doing to-day, except that the action is reversed. Loans floated by England, France and Italy in this country to-day are not taken out of the country in money, but are used to buy supplies to be shipped over there.

A third experience of importance during the War for Independence was that with the disloyal element

which existed in our midst—composed of those commonly called Tories or Loyalists. These people, who were much more numerous than is commonly supposed, did everything in their power to thwart the revolting colonists from making the Revolution a success. Their deeds remind us of some of the doings of people who live among us at the present day. They sowed sedition, they proselyted, spread false news, depreciated the currency and threw discredit on the financial ability of the government, dissuaded people from subscribing to loans, stole powder, piloted hostile vessels, sold goods to the enemy, stole letters, plotted Washington's assassination, harbored spies, gave aid and comfort to the enemy.

At the beginning too much leniency was shown to these people, who, as Washington said, were "preying upon the vitals of the country." He further wrote that "my tenderness has been much abused" and repeatedly complained to state legislatures and friends of the "diabolical and insidious arts and schemes carrying on by the Tories . . . to raise distrust, dissensions and divisions among us." Gradually it became clear to the colonists that the sternest kind of repressive measures would have to be taken against the Tories if the newly formed American state were to be successful.

The various provincial assemblies then began to pass test acts compelling all to take the oath of allegiance. Those who failed to do so were denied the rights of citizenship, of voting, and of holding office; lawyers were denied the right to practise, teachers the right to teach, druggists the right to dispense, and physicians the right to practise. They were denied any standing in the courts, could not collect their debts, serve as guardians, executors or administrators, they could not be jurymen, could neither buy nor sell lands, nor dispose of their fortunes at death, and their deeds of gift were invalid. In one state anyone who objected to taking the oath was given two hours to decide and upon refusal was cast into jail. In others the obdurate were forbidden to travel or go near the enemies' lines, were disarmed, imprisoned, pilloried, their hair cropped; they were specially taxed, their property confiscated, attacked or burned, their houses subjected to visit and their letters opened to discover treasonable matter. They were gathered into groups and banished to districts where they could do little harm; many were placed in concentration camps, others were expatriated to Great Britain and to Canada, or banished to Europe and the West Indies. The Tory press was also severely restricted. To these severe measures Washington and his contemporaries gave their approval for they believed that sympathizers with the enemy must be treated as enemies of the state.

These are only a few aspects of American experience during the War for Independence which should be suggestive in the present crisis. Other illustrations which might be developed if space permitted are: The privations endured by the colonists; the

help rendered us by our allies; the rejection of appeals for peace; and the refusal to entertain the propositions of the British peace commission, sent over after

Burgoyne's surrender. All these topics bring up problems analogous to those which now confront the American people and their government.

## IV. The Origins of the Triple Alliance

PREPARED FOR THE COMMITTEE ON MEDIEVAL AND MODERN HISTORY, AND BASED UPON A. C. COOLIDGE'S "ORIGINS OF THE TRIPLE ALLIANCE" ("SCRIBNER'S," 1917).

The Triple Alliance had its origin between the Peace of Frankfurt (1871) and the accession of Italy in 1882 to the alliance already consummated between Germany and Austria. Bismarck's policy after the Franco-Prussian war was influenced by the fear of a war of revenge and the desire to keep France weak and occupied with home affairs. He was glad to see France a republic, because a republic could less easily find alliances. He wished to prevent an alliance against Germany, but on the other hand desired that Germany herself should have allies—if possible, her old allies of the Holy Alliance, Austria and Russia, both nations politically conservative. During the years 1871 and 1872, through Bismarck's efforts and the interchange of royal visits, an understanding was reached between the sovereigns of the three states. The alliance dominated Europe and was too strong for any combination France might make.

But when France recovered rapidly and began to strengthen her army, Bismarck was alarmed. Whether he purposed war against France in 1875, or meant merely to browbeat her, is not certain. Both St. Petersburg and London used pressure in behalf of France. Bismarck realized that the Tsar wished to maintain the existence of France as a great power. The league of the three emperors, he felt, would not suffice.

Meantime the Eastern Question served to make Russia a less dependable ally. The insurrection in 1875 of Herzegovina and Bosnia against Turkey drew in Serbia and Montenegro, and endangered relations between Russia and Austria. The attempted arrangement between the emperors of Austria and Russia at Reichstadt in 1876 might have proved satisfactory had Serbia not been defeated and invaded by Turkish troops. When public opinion in Russia pushed the Tsar towards war, when the Turks failed to meet the demands for local autonomy and improvement of administration formulated at an international conference at Constantinople, Russia, assuring herself first of Austria's friendly if conditional neutrality, declared war. When Russia after serious defeats took Plevna and pressed on towards Constantinople, Turkey agreed to the Treaty of San Stefano. England and Austria, dissatisfied with that treaty, took steps threatening war, and Russia was forced to consent to the Congress of Berlin. There Russia's winnings were pared, and Austria gained control over Bosnia and Herzegovina; England brought back "peace with honor" and had gained Cyprus.

The outcome of that congress meant the further weakening of the alliance of the three emperors.

Austria, expanding to the southeast, was necessarily a rival of Russia, and Russia was humiliated and deeply offended. Bismarck realized not only that Russia would not give him a free hand against France, but that Germany must be guaranteed against Russian resentment. He probably felt, too, that Germany could not hope in an alliance with Russia to play the dominant rôle. He turned to Austria, and, in spite of the great reluctance of William I, arranged the Austro-German alliance of 1879.

The accession of Italy to that alliance was largely her own doing. The ties of common latinity between France and Italy did not avail to make the latter nation forget its grievances. It was hard for Italy to forget Napoleon III, his failure to restore Venice, his retention of French troops in Rome, his taking of Nice and Savoy. When France after the Congress of Berlin, with the consent of England and the favorable attitude of Bismarck, made Tunis a protectorate, Italy was roused to protests, frantic but unavailing. Weak and isolated, she turned towards Berlin and was directed to Vienna. To Vienna King Humbert went and gained a promise of the integrity of Italy's territory, but not what he also hoped, support for her position and ambitions in the Mediterranean. Austria's treaty with Italy was duplicated by that with Germany. On May 22, 1882, the two documents which together constituted the Triple Alliance were signed in Vienna. It was a triumph for Bismarck, and one for which he paid little.

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Prof. Samuel P. Orth, of Cornell, in writing on "Kaiser and Volk" in the November "Century," argues that it is "high time the American people rid themselves of the fatal delusion that there is a distinction between the ambitions of the Kaiser and of his people. They are a terrible unity; neither will forsake the other," and backs his argument by historical precedent and personal observation.

"The Irish Convention—and After," by Mrs. John Richard Greene ("Atlantic" for November), is an able and interesting account by one of the great authorities on Irish history. She is a strong partisan of Ireland, but not so much so as to lose her sense of historical value. In conclusion, she says: "In the Irish view, the British have utterly failed in the imperial temper. Their statesmanship has not been such as to mark them as an imperially-minded race. The time has come for a new beginning. The creation of an alliance which the old methods have failed to produce now depends on the insight and the courage of the convention. . . . The imperialism of old days—the government of possession by a superior people—is gone, and with it the word itself is fast disappearing."

# Program of the Thirty-Third Annual Meeting of the American Historical Association

PHILADELPHIA, PA., THURSDAY, DECEMBER 27, TO SATURDAY, DECEMBER 29, 1917.

The following is a preliminary form of the program of the American Historical Association:

## THURSDAY, DECEMBER 27.

10.00 a. m.—General session, American history, Clover Room, Bellevue-Stratford.

Paper (subject to be supplied), Herbert N. Bolton, University of California.

"The Association," J. Franklin Jameson, Washington, D. C.

"The Background of American Federalism," Andrew C. McLaughlin, University of Chicago.

"The Significance of the North Central States in the Middle of the Nineteenth Century," Frederick J. Turner, Harvard University.

"Influence of Wheat and Cotton on Anglo-American Relations During the Civil War," Louis B. Schmidt, Iowa State College.

1.00 p. m.—Joint subscription luncheon by American Historical Association and Political Science Association, Ball Room, Bellevue-Stratford.

Address on "A Government Experiment in War Publicity," by Guy Stanton Ford.

3.00 p. m.—Conference of archivists, Historical Society of Pennsylvania, 1300 Locust Street. Chairman, Victor Hugo Paltsits, New York Public Library.

"The Preservation and Collection of War Records."

3.00 p. m.—Ancient history, joint conference of American Archaeological Institute and American Philological Society, Engineering Building, University of Pennsylvania. Chairman, James H. Breasted, University of Chicago.

"The Cosmopolitanism of the Religion of Zoroaster and the Origin of Mithra," A. L. Frothingham, Princeton University. Discussion opened by Nathaniel Schmidt, Cornell University.

"Oriental Imperialism," A. T. Olmstead, University of Illinois. Discussion opened by Morris Jastrow, University of Pennsylvania.

"Greek Imperialism," W. S. Ferguson, Harvard University. Discussion opened by Clarence P. Bill, Adelbert College.

"Roman Imperialism," G. W. Botsford, Columbia University. Discussion opened by S. B. Platner, Western Reserve University.

"The Decay of Nationalism Under the Roman Empire," Clifford Moore, Harvard University. Discussion opened by F. F. Abbott, Princeton University.

"The New Humanism," Francis W. Kelsey, University of Michigan. Discussion opened by W. L. Westerman, University of Wisconsin.

3.00 p. m.—English medieval history, Bellevue-Stratford. Chairman, Dana C. Munro, Princeton University.

"English Medieval Taxation."

"Early Assessment for Papal Taxation of English Clerical Incomes," William E. Lunt, Haverford College.

"The Taxes on the Personal Property of Laymen to 1272," Sydney K. Mitchell, Yale University.

"The Assessment of Lay Subsidies, 1290-1334," James F. Willard, University of Colorado.

"The English Customs Revenues up to 1275," Norman S. B. Gras, Clark University.

6.30 p. m.—Subscription dinner for women members of the American Historical Association, New Century Club, 124 South Twelfth Street.

Topic for discussion, "The Effect of the War on Education."

8.30 p. m.—Presidential address, Historical Society of Pennsylvania.

"The Editorial Function in American History," Worthington C. Ford, Massachusetts Historical Society.

9.30 p. m.—Reception and dinner tendered by the Historical Society of Pennsylvania to the members of the American Historical Association.

## FRIDAY, DECEMBER 28.

Sessions both morning and afternoon at the University of Pennsylvania.

10.00 a. m.—Medieval church history, joint conference with American Society on Church History, College Hall. Chairman, David S. Schaff, Western Theological Seminary, Pittsburgh, Pa.

"The Council of Constance: Its Fame and Its Failure."

Presidential address of the American Society on Church History.

"The Conciliar Movement," Harold J. Laski, Harvard University.

"The Actual Achievements of the Reformation," Preserved Smith, Poughkeepsie, N. Y.

10.00 a. m.—American history, Room 200, College Hall. Joint conference with Mississippi Valley Historical Association.

Chairman, St. George L. Souissat, president of Mississippi Valley Historical Association.

"To What Extent Was George Rogers Clark in Possession of the Northwest at the Close of the Revolution?" James A. James, Northwestern University.

"The Spanish Conspiracy in Tennessee," Archibald Henderson, University of North Carolina.

"Stephen F. Austin," Eugene C. Barker, University of Texas.

"Populism in Louisiana in the Nineties," M. J. White, Tulane University.

10.00 a. m.—Military history and war economics, Houston Hall. Chairman, Robert M. Johnston, Harvard University.

"Role de la Section Historique dans un Etat-Major General," Lt. Col. Paul Asan, French Army.

"Notes on American Manufactures During the Civil War," Victor S. Clark, Carnegie Institution, Washington, D. C.

"The Reconstruction of the Southern Railroads," Carl R. Fish, University of Wisconsin.

"The Work of the Commercial Economy Board," E. F. Gay, Harvard University.

1.00 p. m.—Luncheon tendered to members of all associations by the University of Pennsylvania, Weightman Hall.

2.30 p. m.—Recent Russian history, Houston Hall.

"The Roll of the Intellectuals in the Liberating Movement in Russia," Alexander Petrunkevitch, Yale University.

"Factors in the March Revolution of 1917," Samuel N. Harper, University of Chicago.

"The First Week of the Revolution of March, 1917," P. Golder, Washington State College.

"The Jugo-Slav Movement," Robert J. Kerner, University of Missouri.

6.00 p. m.—Supper tendered to members by the University of Pennsylvania.

8.15 p. m.—General session.

"A Generation of American Historiography," William A. Dunning, Columbia University.

"The Responsibility of the Historian in the Formation of Public Opinion," James H. Robinson, Columbia University.

Paper (subject to be supplied), André Tardieu, of the French High Commission.

"The Psychology of a Constitutional Convention," Albert Bushnell Hart, Harvard University.

#### SATURDAY, DECEMBER 29.

10.00 a. m.—Conference of historical societies, Historical Society of Pennsylvania. Chairman—Thomas Lynch Montgomery, State Librarian of Pennsylvania.

Business session; election of officers and committees.

10.45 a. m.—"The Relation of the Hereditary Patriotic Societies and the Historical Societies, with Especial Reference to Co-operation in Publication," Norris S. Barratt, Philadelphia.

"The Collection of Local War Material by Historical Societies."

Discussion by Solon J. Buck, Minnesota Historical Society; Harlow Lindley, Indiana Historical Commission; Ralph D. W. Conner, North Carolina Historical Commission; G. N. Fuller, Michigan Historical Commission.

10.00 a. m.—Conference of teachers of history. Joint session with the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland, Glover Room, Bellevue-Stratford. Chairman, Marshall S. Brown, New York University.

Report by Committee on the Teaching of History in the Schools. Chairman, Henry Johnson, Teachers' College.

Discussion.

10.00 a. m.—Conference on Far Eastern history, Bellevue-Stratford. Chairman, \_\_\_\_\_.

"The Mid-Victorian Attitude of Foreigners in China," F. W. Williams, Yale University.

"American Scholarship in Chinese History," K. S. Latourette, Denison University.

"Twenty Years of Party Politics in Japan, 1897-1917," W. W. McLaren, Williams College.

"The History of Naturalization Legislation in the United States, with Special Reference to Chinese and Japanese Immigration," Sydney L. Gulick, New York City.

10.00 a. m.—Conference on South American history, Bellevue-Stratford.

2.30 p. m.—Annual business meeting, Bellevue-Stratford. Reports of officers and committees.

Election of officers.

4.00 p. m.—Visit to Old Time Philadelphia.

6.00 p. m.—Subscription dinner conference for members interested in Far Eastern history, Franklin Inn, Camac and St. James Street.

8.15 p. m.—Joint conference with the American Economic Association, American Political Science Association, and American Sociological Society, Bellevue-Stratford.

"The British Commonwealth," Hon. R. H. Brand, Deputy Vice-Chairman of the British War Mission.

"Pan German Use of History," Wallace Notestein, University of Minnesota.

"Economic Alliances," Edward P. Costigan, United States Tariff Commission.

#### NATIONAL BOARD FOR HISTORICAL SERVICE.

##### WAR SUPPLEMENTS.

Commencing with the January issue each number of THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE will contain a supplement supplied through the National Board for Historical Service. These supplements will vary in size from four to twenty-four pages, and will contain outlines, special bibliographies, maps, and other aids relating to the war and its connection with the teaching of history. The first supplement, to appear with the January number, will consist of a topical syllabus or outline of the history of the war, by Prof. Samuel B. Harding, of the University of Indiana. It will be of service to those who wish to make a systematic study of the war or to present such a study to their classes. Other supplements will contain important documentary material, lists of general and special reading, with descriptive and critical comment, maps of the principal military operations, etc.

##### DEPARTMENT OF QUERIES AND ANSWERS.

A department of queries and answers under the editorship of the National Board for Historical Service will be inaugurated in the January number of the MAGAZINE. This department will be open to all teachers of history, but queries must relate to the history of the war, and more especially to the teaching of history and the war. Queries may be sent to the editor of the MAGAZINE or to W. G. Leland, 1133 Woodward Building, Washington, D. C. The services of historical scholars have been secured for this department, and queries will be answered as soon as possible after their receipt. The most typical or important queries and their answers will be published in THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE; other queries will be answered by letter.

##### UNITED STATES BUREAU OF EDUCATION.

The United States Bureau of Education Teachers' Leaflet No. 1 on the war and history teaching in the secondary schools has been distributed to over 20,000 teachers and educational officials by the Bureau of Education. Single copies may be had by teachers of history upon application to the Bureau of Education or to the National Board for Historical Service. Teachers desiring copies in bulk should apply to the Superintendent of Public Documents, who has them for sale at a nominal price.

Other teachers' leaflets on the war and the teaching of history, civics, and geography in the elementary schools are being prepared under the direction of Prof. J. M. Gambrill, and will shortly be issued by the Bureau of Education.

##### NATIONAL BOARD FOR HISTORICAL SERVICE.

A meeting of the National Board for Historical Service was held in Washington on November 9 and 10, at which the following new members were elected to the Board: Profs. A. C. Coolidge, of Harvard University; Dana C. Munro, of Princeton; William E. Lingelbach, of the University of Pennsylvania; Samuel B. Harding, of the University of Indiana; William E. Dodd, of the University of Chicago, and Wallace Notestein, of the University of Minnesota.

Prof. Evarts B. Greene, of the University of Illinois, was chosen chairman of the Board; Prof. D. C. Munro, vice-chairman, in place of Profs. J. T. Shotwell and C. H. Hull, who asked to be relieved from duty because of inability to remain in Washington during the coming year. Professor Munro, the new vice-chairman, has already taken up residence in Washington, and the new chairman, Professor Greene, will do so in the near future.

The Board was further reorganized by the appointment of committees, as follows:

**EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE.**—Messrs. Greene, Munro, Jameson, Leland, Ford.

**COMMITTEE ON EDUCATION.**—Messrs. Greene, Fish, H. Johnson, J. M. Gambrill, A. E. McKinley.

**COMMITTEE ON RESEARCH.**—Messrs. Shotwell, Coolidge, Dodd, Turner, Jameson, Munro, Wm. E. Lingelbach.

**COMMITTEE ON BIBLIOGRAPHY AND RECORDS.**—Messrs. Leland, Hunt, Connor, G. M. Dutcher, Hull.

**COMMITTEE ON CO-OPERATION.**—Messrs. Ford, Clark, Harding, Hazen, Notestein.

The Executive Committee was given authority to act in the name of the Board, and its members will reside in Washington during the war.

#### COMMITTEE ON PUBLIC INFORMATION.

A word of explanation is due the many teachers who have applied to the Board or to the Committee on Public Information for the pamphlets published by the latter. So far as possible such requests have been complied with, but the demand for these pamphlets has been so great (aggregating several million copies) that the Government Printing Office has been unable to keep pace with it, and the Committee on Public Information has recently made arrangements with a large printing house which will greatly increase the supply of the pamphlets. Before long the committee hopes to fill all the orders that it has so far received, but in the meantime it bespeaks the indulgence and patience of those who ask it for material.

An interesting article on the personnel and the work of the Committee on Public Information is printed in the "Review of Reviews" for November, 1917.

#### PRIZE ESSAY CONTESTS.

Attention is here called to the fact that the Prize Essay Contest, in all states in which this competition has been organized, will close January 1, 1918. To allow for delays of mail delivery, this rule will be interpreted to admit to the contests all essays which bear the postmark of December 31. The contests are confined to the teachers in the public elementary and secondary schools of California, Connecticut, Illinois, Indiana, Massachusetts, Minnesota, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, Ohio, Tennessee, Virginia, Wisconsin, and the city of Cincinnati. Essays submitted to these fourteen state contests should be sent to W. G. Leland, secretary, 1133 Woodward Building, Washington, D. C.; those entered in the Cincinnati contest should be addressed to Frank P. Goodwin, Denton Building, Cincinnati, O. Essays should not be signed, but each essay should be accompanied by a slip containing the name, address, and teaching position of the writer. This last is important in order that each essay may be considered in its proper group. The names of the writers will not be communicated to the committees of award until after the decisions are made. The members of these committees of award in each state will be persons competent to judge historical papers and well-known to most of the teachers of the state. As has been before announced, the essays which secure the first prizes in each contest will be considered for the additional prizes of \$75 each to be awarded to the best essay in each group.

A special contest for Missouri teachers has been organized under the auspices of the Missouri Committee for Historical Service. Information respecting this contest may be obtained from Prof. Jonas Viles, University of Missouri, Columbia, Mo.

#### THE WAR AND SCHOOLS.

The officers of the Department of History of Vassar College have planned a series of informal lectures on the questions at issue in the present war and the relation between the past and these present conditions. The topics of the lectures are as follows: "What Is Modern History?" by Lucy M. Salmon; "The Freedom of the Seas," by Ida Carleton Thallon; "Places in the Sun," by Violet Barbour; "Neutral or Ally?" by C. Mildred Thompson; "Old and New Boundary Disputes," by Eloise Ellery; "Macedonia—The Apple of Discord," by Lucy E. Textor; and "Poland," by James Fosdick Baldwin.

County superintendents of schools in many parts of the country are issuing appeals and instructions to the teachers under them suggesting the course of action for teachers in the present war situation. Dr. Samuel Hamilton, County Superintendent of Allegheny County, Pa., has urged the continuation of the war garden movement; the use of the domestic science equipment in the preservation of food; the support by the schools of the Junior Red Cross; the boys' working reserve and the soldiers' library fund. Dr. Hamilton also urges the study in English classes in the high school of President Wilson's admirable state papers, which he says are "possibly not surpassed by any English classic now studied in our schools."

A new national anthem entitled, "America, My Country," has been issued. The words are by J. K. Grondahl and the music by E. F. Maetzold. Words and music can be obtained from music dealers generally, or from the publishers, the Red Wing Printing Company, Red Wing, Minn.

War saving on text-books can be accomplished by ordering the year's supply in January instead of June and July, according to a recent note of the United States Bureau of Education. Winter ordering of books would make possible the establishment of uniform hours of work and rates of pay in the school book business. It would save machinery and conserve human energy by establishing a uniform production and shipping of books throughout the year.

A weekly news letter of the University of North Carolina began with its issue of October 31, 1917, a series of articles upon the aims, purposes and ideals of the United States in the war. The first installment contains a statement as to "Why We Fight Germany," part of which is taken from Secretary Lane's speech entitled, "This Is Our War."

Secretary McAdoo's address delivered at the High School in Madison, Wis., October 3, 1917, has been published by the Government Printing Office. It is a stirring appeal to young America to support the cause of the country.

Pledges seem to be the order of the day. Many different forms have been issued by national and local organizations to further the thrift habit, to conserve food, to expand the farming area, to protect the supply of labor and for many other purposes. The following pledge has been adopted by the National Education Association, and has been distributed among students and teachers in many parts of the country.

"As a non-combatant I propose to render service to my country and to her allies in the following way:

"1. I will keep myself so well posted on the causes and progress of the world war that I may be a source of information and influence to others.

"2. I appreciate so thoroughly the danger of internal enemies that I will report to the proper authorities the name and location of every native or alien citizen whose

conduct or utterances indicate enmity to our country or lack of sympathy with our aims.

"3. I will do all in my power to encourage increased production of food materials, both animal and vegetable.

"4. I will cheerfully change my habits of eating so as to help conserve wheat, meat, animal fats, dairy products and sugar.

"5. I will assist in every possible way to make all succeeding liberty loans a success.

"6. I will practice economy and deny myself luxuries so that I may contribute large sums to the various necessary war philanthropies.

"7. I will help to stabilize public opinion by showing the reasonableness and necessity of the government's demands and the baselessness of the unfounded rumors relating to the war.

"8. I will be a friend and comforter to the families of soldiers and minister to their needs in every possible way.

"9. I will try to meet all the varied events of the war with patience, calmness and optimism.

"10. I will work harder and more earnestly so that I may contribute my part to make up the loss due to the withdrawals from industry of large numbers of men for the army."

The following civic creed, read by Mr. Hatch at the close of his talk at the Tufts College Teachers' Conference on October 27, was indicative of his attitude toward the purpose of the teaching of American history:

I believe in America, the land of all nations but of one nationality.

I believe in a knowledge of my country's history and a respect for her traditions, that they may continue ever to be "stepping stones unto others," as was the purpose and prayer of the Fathers.

I acknowledge my personal responsibility as a citizen of this great commonwealth, and I dedicate myself to a life of service and usefulness in the community.

I believe in America's future, as an inspired leader of democracy, and I look forward to the brotherhood of all mankind.

The Manual Arts Department of the Hughes High School, Cincinnati, O., has printed 3,000 copies of a 36-page booklet to be used as a text-book in the English and civics courses in the Cincinnati high schools. The pamphlet contains President Wilson's address to the Senate approving the League to Enforce Peace, January 22, 1917; the message to Congress of April 2, 1917; the President's Flag Day Note, Cincinnati speech, June 14, 1917; the reply to the Pope's peace proposals, August 29, 1917; the letter to the soldiers of the National Army, September 4, 1917.

The following pledge has been adopted by the Philadelphia Chamber of Commerce, and has been widely distributed and reprinted:

"In this time of national crisis, I pledge myself to support the military, financial and economic policies of my country.

"I do this, first, because the United States stands for democracy; for the right of the people to a voice in their government. Under this government I have received a good education; I have been protected in my life and property, and I have had an opportunity to enter any activity in life for which I am fitted.

"I make this pledge, secondly, because I believe democracy, not only in the United States, but also throughout the world, is threatened by the ambitions of the German Kaiser and his advisers.

"He has established a military system whose avowed purpose is conquest;

"He has waged war by barbarous and inhuman methods, the principal sufferers of which have been helpless men and women and children;

"He has encouraged a course of instruction by which the youth of his nation have been educated to believe in force and conquest;

"He has repudiated treaties;

"He has violated all the principles of humanity and international law in his treatment of the conquered Belgians;

"He has conspired against our country while at peace with us;

"He has sought to embroil us in war with other countries;

"He has based his policy toward other nations upon falsehood and deceit.

"For these reasons I accept the judgment of the President that no man and no nation can depend upon the word or treaty of the present German government.

"For these reasons I pledge myself and my property to the cause of my country, and I will accept whatever service I am able and fitted to undertake."

The instructors in the Pasadena (California) High School are preparing a war citizenship course, including something upon the cause of the war and about twenty lessons on the war problems of the government and the schools. Copies of the outline of the course can be obtained from Mrs. W. C. Wood, Commissioner of Secondary Education, Sacramento, Cal.

Dr. Henry Reed Burch and Mr. H. W. Hoagland, of the West Philadelphia High School for Boys, report an interesting experience in an elective course in the study of the World War. This course was announced last September to meet after school hours from 2.15 to 3 o'clock four days a week. The instructors were surprised when over sixty students applied for the course. It was necessary to cut down the number to forty. The work has been organized under the following topics: Review of Modern Europe; Map Studies; Geographical Background of the War; Ethnological Background of the War; the Government of the Central Powers; the Danger Signs Since 1871; Europe from June to August, 1914; America's Relation to the War; and the American Entrance into the War.

Persons who read Prof. D. C. Munro's article in the September number of the MAGAZINE suggesting the value of Constantinople as a viewpoint for the history of Europe will be interested in learning that the same idea was adopted by Prof. F. J. C. Hearnshaw in a series of lectures given at King's College, University of London, during the session of 1916-17. The topics of Prof. Hearnshaw's lectures may be of use to Americans who wish to put Constantinople in its proper perspective. They are as follows:

Introductory: The Empire Before 313.

Constantine and the Conversion of the Empire.

The Schism of the Empire.

The Incursions of the Barbarians.

Justinian and the Revival of Imperial Power.

The Relapse after Justinian.

The Saracen Onslaught.

Slavonic and Bulgarian Incursions.

Leo III and the Siege of Constantinople.

The Iconoclast Controversy and Its Sequel.

The Revolt of the Papacy.

The Period of Transition, 802-867.

The Basilian Revival.

The Beginnings of Final Decline.



The Coming of the Seljuk Turks.  
 The Era of the Crusades.  
 The Latin Capture of Constantinople.  
 The Greek Restoration.  
 The Coming of the Ottoman Turks.  
 The Fall of Constantinople and the End of the Roman Empire.

The United States Employment Service of the Department of Labor calls attention to the extreme shortage of teachers which exists in the United States. Many schools have not been opened this fall owing to a lack of teachers, while other schools have been opened, but are inadequately manned. All who are interested in educational success are advised to urge competent persons to apply for school positions.

"How to Teach the World War" is discussed by Prof. Bessie Leach Priddy, of the Michigan State Normal College, in "The American Schoolmaster" for October 15, 1917 (Ypsilanti, Mich.). Prof. Priddy not only gives detailed suggestions upon class work, but also gives a brief bibliography of the war.

"The Battle Line of Democracy," issued by the Committee on Public Information (price, 15 cents), is a collection of prose and poetry relating to the world war. The selections are chosen for the use of schools and are dedicated to the children of America. The collection was begun by Secretary Franklin K. Lane, of the Interior Department. Later the editorial supervision was taken over by Prof. Guy Stanton Ford, of the Committee on Public Information. Suggestions were obtained from the National Board for Historical Service, and assistance was given by Miss Frances Davenport and Miss Elizabeth Donnan. Publishers and authors cordially granted the right to use extracts from their works. The quotations are arranged under seven headings, as follows: "The Call," "America," "Belgium," "France," "Britain," "Russia," and "Italy."

#### CURRENT PERIODICAL ARTICLES ON THE TEACHING OF HISTORY.

LISTED BY W. L. HALL, NEW YORK STATE LIBRARY.

Craven, Bruce.—"Denatured History." *Journal of Education* (Boston), LXXXVI (October 11, 1917), 354.

Hawley, Hattie L.—Correlated lessons for the rural school III. A history lesson; the first Thanksgiving feast. *Popular Educator*, XXXV (October, 1917), 83.

Johnson, Evelyn.—History study. *Atlantic Educational Journal*, XIII (October, 1917), 94-96.

Kendall, Calvin N.—The schools and the war. *Atlantic Educational Journal*, XIII (October, 1917), 65-67.

Priddy, Bessie Leach.—Teaching the world war. "The American Schoolmaster," X (October 15, 1917), 354-361.

Roberts, Effie M.—The problem method in history teaching. "Popular Educator," XXXV (November, 1917), 132-133.

Prof. A. V. Dicey writes on "Ireland as a Dominion" in the October "Nineteenth Century." He urges that no steps be taken until the present war is well over.

Henri Dacremont's "Raspoutine, Lea Magie et les Cours d'Europe," in the "Nouvelle Revue" for September, is an inquiry into the influence of this strange priest, and a comparison of his position with that of other court favorites.

## Notes from the Historical Field

Leaflet No. 44 of the (English) Historical Association for September, 1917, contains a bibliography of medieval history, 400 to 1500 A.D., prepared by Miss Beatrice A. Lees. The bibliography is divided into several sections, including bibliographies, auxiliary studies, sources, general works of references and text-books. A chronological division is also made in which are detailed reference to sources, general works of reference, text-books and special studies are given. Three periods are given, as follows: 400 to 918 A.D.; 918 to 1273; and 1273 to 1500.

An announcement has been made by the publishing firm of Doubleday, Page & Company that they contemplate entering the field of educational publications. In their introductory statement they say that the three years of war have made radical changes in the life of all nations, and that text-books on economics, history, geography and science will have to be written along new lines. They will welcome suggestions and manuscripts from authors engaged in the educational fields.

The California High School Teachers' Association has appointed a "European History Commission," the purpose of which is to investigate the status of the teaching of European history throughout the State. It is believed that there is relatively a large percentage of students who can give but one year to the study. The commission has issued a brief questionnaire requesting information upon this point from high school authorities. After obtaining this information the commission hopes to be able to make a report upon the scope and nature of such a one-year course in European history. The commission is composed of Miss Jane E. Harnett, chairman, Long Beach High School; Dr. N. A. N. Cleven, secretary, San Diego High School; Prof. Alexis F. Lange, University of California; Mr. Will C. Wood, Commissioner of Secondary Education; Prof. William A. Morris, University of California; Mr. E. J. Beringer, Sacramento Junior College; Mr. John R. Sutton, Oakland High School; Miss Sarah L. Dole, Manual Arts High School, Los Angeles; Mr. John G. Iliff, Stockton High School; Prof. Albert B. Shaw, Leland Stanford University; Miss Ruth E. McGrew, Sacramento High School; and Miss Anna Stewart, Los Angeles High School.

Prof. Walter L. Fleming has resigned his position in Louisiana State University to accept a professorship in Vanderbilt University left vacant by Prof. Sioussat's transfer to Brown.

Teachers preparing students for entrance to American colleges will be interested in looking over the entrance requirements for English colleges, universities and the English civil service which are printed in Leaflet No. 3, revised, of the (English) Historical Association. Copies can be obtained from the secretary of the association, Miss M. B. Curran, 22 Russell Square, W. C., London.

On Tuesday, October 23, the teachers of history in the Houston (Texas) High Schools met at the Central High School and organized the Houston History Teachers' Association. Fifteen persons were present, and T. H. Rogers, head of the history department of the Central High School, was elected president and A. G. Mallison secretary. The association plans to meet once a month to discuss problems of interest to the members.

The Johns Hopkins University announces the establishment of a new publication entitled, "The Johns Hopkins University Studies in Education," which will be edited by

members of the University Department of Education. Number 1 in the series is "The Correlation of Abilities of High School Pupils," by Dr. D. E. Weglein.

The History Teachers' Association of the Middle States and Maryland will hold a session at Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, N. Y., at 10 a. m., on Saturday, December 1st, in conjunction with the meetings of the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the same region. The general topic for the history session will be "What Can the Teacher of History Do Now?" Among those who will take part in the discussion are President John H. Finley, of the University of the State of New York; Prof. Henry Johnson, Teachers' College, Columbia University; Prof. Charles D. Hazen, of Columbia University, a member of the National Board for Historical Service; Prof. William D. Guthrie, of the College of the City of New York; Dr. Daniel C. Knowlton, of the Central High School, Newark, N. J.; and Mr. Horace W. Hoagland, of the West Philadelphia High School for Boys. Prof. Lucy M. Salmon, of Vassar College, is chairman of the local committee.

Teachers, who are interested in prohibition literature, will find much of value in the publications of the Board of Temperance, Prohibition and Public Morals of the Methodist Episcopal Church. The office of the Board is 204 Pennsylvania Avenue, S. E., Washington, D. C.

The Civic Historical Session of the Colorado Educational Association, Eastern Division, met at Denver on Thursday and Friday, November 1 and 2. The following program was presented: "The Problem Method in Teaching History," by Martha N. Kimball, Denver; "Practical Economics in the High School," by Ira F. Nestor, Denver; "The Teaching of Citizenship," by Edwin B. Smith, State Teachers' College; "The Stereopticon in History Work," by W. P. Rhodes, Denver; "What the History Teacher Can Do Now," by C. W. Bigelow, Denver; "The Bases for Permanent Peace," by C. C. Eckhardt, University of Colorado; and "Basis for the Present War," by Dr. Bemis, Colorado College. The officers of the association are: President, Archibald Taylor, Longmont; and secretary, Olin P. Lee, Longmont.

The John C. Winston Company, of Philadelphia, have announced that they are about to enter the text-book publishing field. The editorial work of the new department will be under the direction of Dr. William D. Lewis, Principal of the William Penn High School, Philadelphia. Books in process of publication include a series of young American readers, a series in community civics, works on civics for urban communities, text-book on civics for rural communities, and a series of histories for the grades.

#### NEW ENGLAND HISTORY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

The New England History Teachers' Association held its annual fall meeting Saturday, November 3, 1917, at Simmons College, Boston.

The program consisted of a discussion of "Modern Russian History and Conditions," though the list of speakers was somewhat different from that originally announced and published in the last issue of THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE.

Prof. Robert H. Lord, of Harvard University, spoke on "Some Impressions of the Recent Russian Revolution." Mr. Maurice Hindus, a Russian, spoke from the point of view of a native of that country. He expressed the conviction that Kerensky would remain in power, and that, if he remained at the helm, Russia would not make a separate peace. Dr. Earl B. Downer was the guest at luncheon. He gave an illustrated talk on his experiences in Russia. The

luncheon was the best attended in the history of the association. Seventy-six persons were present.

The association adopted resolutions upon the death of Miss Blanche Leavitt, for many years a member of the Council. The following officers were elected:

President, Harry M. Varrell, Simmons College; vice-president, George M. Dutcher, Wesleyan University; secretary-treasurer, Horace Kidger, Newton Technical High School. Council—Sybil B. Aldrich, Girls' Latin School, Boston; Orrin C. Hornell, Bowdoin College; Harriet E. Tuell, Somerville High School; Alan R. Wheeler, St. George's School, Newport, R. I.

#### IOWA ASSOCIATION.

The annual session of the Iowa Society of Social Science Teachers was held in connection with the State Teachers' Association at Des Moines, November 1 and 2.

Dr. William Harrison Mace gave an address on "The High School and the War."

Prof. Ernest Horn, of Iowa University, presented the "Problem of Relative Values in Making the Course of Study in History." The material for this paper was obtained by a series of tests made by graduate students of Iowa University to discover whether the present course of study is properly arranged if the "chief purpose of teaching history is to make pupils more intelligent with respect to the crucial activities, conditions and problems of present-day life." The investigation seemed to show that, if we accept the above theory, our text-books must be rewritten.

The business session of the society was called at the conclusion of the annual six o'clock dinner, one of the very pleasant features of the organization. Here the president, Prof. Gilbert G. Benjamin, of the University of Iowa, read his formal address, taking as his topic, "Some Conventionalities in the Teaching of History." The officers for 1917-1918 were elected as follows:

President, Dr. Charles M. Meyerholz, Teachers' College, Cedar Falls; vice-president, Prof. Earle D. Ross, Simpson College, Indianola; secretary-treasurer, Miss Martha Hutchinson, West High School, Des Moines. Executive Committee—Mr. Clarence E. Nickle, East High School, Des Moines; Miss Bessie L. Pierce, University High School, Iowa City; Prof. S. G. Pattison, Coe College, Cedar Rapids.

On Friday afternoon the program took the form of a round-table, each paper being followed by general discussion. The question, "Is there a special type of American history and civics for the rural schools?" was opened by Prof. Macy Campbell, of Iowa Teachers' College, who was followed by two county superintendents of schools, Miss Jenette Lewis and Mr. Fred D. Cram. The chief points made were that:

1. Books giving due emphasis to rural governmental and social questions should be available for the over-worked rural teachers.

2. More attention should be given to local history, and to history of the Mississippi Valley than is ordinarily given to it.

3. The history of the last fifty years should be adequately presented.

In the absence of those assigned to the subject, Mr. Hugh A. Bone, principal of Sioux City High School, gave a most interesting talk on "The European Background Required by a Course in American History."

A paper which aroused much comment was read by Miss Bessie L. Pierce, of the University High School. This paper outlined a plan of "self-instruction in history" which throws the recitation into a general exercise where

every pupil is either reciting all of the time during the period or listening to one of his mates reciting, while the teacher becomes a referee to settle disputes arising between the various pairs of pupils as they carry on this self-instruction process.

A few of those who followed Miss Pierce condemned the plan unreservedly, but the opinion seemed to prevail among the members of the round-table that while this might be a very admirable method with a small group of pupils in the hands of an expert teacher, it would not be feasible in the average school.

#### KANSAS ASSOCIATION.

The Kansas History Teachers' Association held a meeting on November 8 in connection with the Kansas State Teachers' Association. Prof. Davis Snedden, of Teachers' College, Columbia University, spoke upon "Needed Readjustments in History Teaching," urging a radical reorganization of the history course. Mr. Raymond A. Kent spoke upon "The Teaching of History in the Elementary Schools," and discussion was had upon the topic, "What History and How Much Shall be Given and How Much Shall be Required in the High School?" The general opinion seemed to be that a year of American history should be required, and at least one year of European history should precede the American history. A paper was read by Miss Sadie Van Aken, pointing out what readjustments of history teaching were made necessary by the world war. Reports were received from committees upon the teaching of history in the Kansas elementary schools and on reference books for high school libraries. Both of these committees were continued for another year. The officers chosen were as follows: President, Miss Mary Alice Whitney, State Normal School, Emporia; vice-president, Mr. W. S. Robb, principal of the Dickinson County High School, Chapman; and secretary-treasurer, Miss Marcia Brown, of Lawrence.

#### OHIO HISTORY TEACHERS.

The fourth session of the Ohio History Teacher's Association was held on Friday and Saturday, November 2 and 3, at the Ohio Archaeological and Historical Society Building, Columbus. The Friday afternoon session was devoted to a discussion of Ohio history. Papers were read upon "What Can Be Done to Promote the Collection and Publication of Materials and Monographs Relating to the History of Ohio and the Old Northwest;" and "Ohio Historiography Since the Civil War." Prof. H. C. Hockett reported from the committee upon a source book of Ohio history. On Friday evening the following papers were presented: "The Teaching of Medieval History," by Prof. L. Thorndike; "History With Pick and Spade," by Prof. S. C. Derby. A report from the committee on the teaching of history in high schools was presented by Prof. T. G. Hoover. Saturday morning session included a very comprehensive program, as follows: "The Ethical Value in History," by Miss Grace H. Stivers and Mr. R. W. Wells; "The Events to be Emphasized as Causes of the Present War," by E. M. Benedict; "Scholarships and Fellowships in Ohio Colleges," by Mr. V. Martz; "Improvements in Our Recent Text-books on Ancient History," by Miss M. Aborn; "Improvements in Our Recent Text-books on Medieval and Modern History," by Mr. G. Detrick; "Improvements in Our Recent Text-books in American History," by Mr. H. Gallen and Mr. D. M. Hickson. At the business meeting which followed, officers for the ensuing year were elected: President, Mr. C. C. Barnes, of Marion, O.; secretary-treasurer, Mr. Carl Wittke, Ohio State University, Columbus, O.

#### TUFTS COLLEGE HISTORY CONFERENCE.

The conference held on October 27, 1917, was opened by Mr. Clarence D. Kingsley.

Mr. Kingsley explained the suggested change that may be made in the high school history departments. Leading up to this he outlined a combination of geography, history and civics (economic aspect). In the high school the following plan would be carried out:

Freshman year, general history to 1700, 1 unit.

Sophomore year, European history since 1700, 1 or ½ unit.

Junior year, American history and government, 1 or ½ unit.

Senior year, problems of democracy, 1 or ½ unit.

This plan would differ materially from the present schedule of:

Freshman year, ancient history.

Sophomore year, medieval and modern history.

Junior year, English history.

Senior year, American history.

Reasons that Mr. Kingsley advanced for the proposed change were as follows:

1. Few take all four courses. A selection should be made, so why not make the selection or elimination be in taking the course rather than in leaving out the entire unit?

2. The new schedule represents a better distribution of time.

3. It is possible to arrange the history to 1700 to have it more profitable than to have the entire year devoted to ancient history.

4. English history need not stand out as an individual unit, for it is a part of Europe.

Mr. Farnsworth spoke on the effect of the present war on the teaching of ancient history. He said, in general, that ancient history has been in danger of being side-tracked by new courses along with English history. The tendency has been to either drive it out altogether, or, at best, to allow it only one-half the year. The war will tend to restore the balance and re-emphasize it, for without a knowledge of the past of man one cannot understand the present.

Mr. Hatch recommended a use of the practical knowledge that the events and incidents connected with the war will afford for the teaching of American history. For instance, he suggested the use of what he termed "tangent topics" to drive home points in present history as well as past. Tariff conditions and regulations could well be taught in connection with the present sugar shortage, and elections should be taught when the November elections are taking place, rather than in the order in which the subject is listed in the course of study.

The feeling of internationalism, and a wider sympathy for other nations will be fostered by the experiences and knowledge of the present war.

Mr. Hatch suggested, too, that together with a judicial use of the current happenings as material for history teaching, the New England Association report of the Committee of Seven was still as good as it was in 1903.

The effect of the war on the teaching of economic history was discussed by Mr. Tirrell.

He defined economic history as it is usually thought of, as being commercial and industrial history, though it really is much broader, he stated. The question was then raised if the war would not serve to broaden the usual interpretation of the term, for is the commercial and is the industrial phase of life the most important? The thing that ought to stand out, that getting a living is not the greatest mo-

tive in life, but something deeper, has been shown by the war. Before this, people had thought that a war could not possibly last more than six months, but this has shown what people can accomplish when they really want to and have to. History is the life of the world, and includes all things. The thing to be decided in the future is whether such a union as has been proposed by the Allies at different times, one which will exclude the Central Powers, can be carried out. This lies distinctly in the realm of economic history.

Miss Raymenton spoke of the changes both in the attitude toward and the teaching of English history which have been or will be effected by the war. In summarizing, it was stated:

Recent developments have already affected, and ought to continue to affect, the teaching of English history as follows:

1. By awakening the pupils.
2. By awakening the teachers.
3. By effecting a change from the old "question and answer" and "topical" methods to the "forum" method of recitation.
4. By changing the character of the text-books.
5. By making of English history a subjective rather than an objective study.
6. By emphasizing "cause and effect," particularly the latter, and thus making of even high school English history a science, and an aid to American citizenship.

The effect of the war upon the teaching of European history was discussed by Miss Tuell. She said in part:

From being an object of suspicion history has become an object of consideration, and this is the opportunity of the history teacher. Since the war the reorganization of history has become the work of the history teacher. In order to accomplish this, the following things must be borne in mind and emphasized:

1. An enlargement of our geographical vision.
2. Sympathy with other nations must be stressed.
3. Revision of our views of historic characters.
4. New devotion to the cause of democracy.
5. History must be made to be, as Napoleon said, "The torch of truth, the destroyer of prejudice."

Following the presentation of these talks there was general discussion, and criticisms and suggestions were offered also by Mr. Edwin J. Cox, of Newtonville, and Miss Gladys Adams, of the Beverly High School.

#### MARYLAND ASSOCIATION.

A history conference was held in connection with the annual meeting of the Maryland State Teachers' Association at Baltimore on Monday and Tuesday, November 26 and 27, Dr. P. L. Kaye, of Baltimore City College, presiding. The Monday afternoon session discussed the effect of the war on the teaching of history, and papers were presented by Prof. J. H. Latane, of Johns Hopkins University, and Prof. C. W. Stryker, of St. John's College. The Tuesday afternoon session took up problems connected with history in the high school. Among those who took part in the program were Prof. C. E. Adams, of Baltimore Polytechnic Institute; Miss Mary C. Ott, of the Boys' High School, Frederick; Miss L. J. Cairner, of the Western High School, Baltimore; Dr. F. R. Blake, of Baltimore City College, and Mr. G. L. Fleagle, of Smithburg, Md.

## Periodical Literature

EDITED BY GERTRUDE BRAMLETTE RICHARDS, PH.D.

"The Real Problem of Alsace and Lorraine," according to Sydney Brooks ("North American" for November), lies in the material resources of those lands, including particularly the mines, which have been developed as a result of German occupation. The loss of these means an irreparable blow to Germany's prosperity and success, which would be partly counteracted by using German coal to smelt French ore. It is, however, to the interest of both to block this. If it is left open and large and profitable commercial relations are recreated between France and Germany, there is great danger that France may be again drawn into a German net.

Among the many articles appearing on the Russian Revolution, that by Raymond Reconly (Captain X) on "The Russian Army and the Revolution" in November's "Scribner's" is certainly one of the most vivid, being the record of an alert and trained eye-witness.

Prof. Kuno Franke discusses "Germany in Defeat" in the November "Harper's," and explains certain points in his former article in the September number of the magazine. He says: "Whatever existence fate may have in store for a defeated Germany—however impoverished, however gagged, however mutilated—the spirit manifested by the German people in the martyrdom of this war, gives assurance that even in a complete breakdown of its international position, it will not deviate from adherence to its traditional ideal of the subordination of individual happiness to common task."

President Lyman P. Powell, of Hobart College, has an interesting article entitled, "Source of Education in England and France," in the November "Review of Reviews."

The article on "The Cost of the War" in the current number of "The Unpopular Review," states that "the nations as a whole could not and have not mortgaged their future wealth so as to burden themselves very seriously; about all they could do in this way was to establish by their war debts a different distribution of their future wealth. While this may be a burden on the debtor nations and may embarrass industry to some extent, it will not greatly diminish the amount of wealth produced in the future."

Louise E. Matthaei's article on "Domestic Politics in Hungary" ("Contemporary Review" for October) deals with the question of Hungarian politics and the relation this bears to Magyar caste feeling and the marvellous Magyar caste solidarity. This is an able exposition of the situation in Hungary, and expresses the nation's hopes and the ability of the new king to win the confidence of this group of his subjects.

In the November "Forum," Hon. Champ Clark replies to criticisms of Congress in his article, "Democracy is Safe."

"Armenia and the Armenians," by His Excellency Ismail Kemal Bey, in the "Fortnightly Review" for October, deals particularly with the attitude of the Turkish government to the Armenians under Sultan Abdul el Hamid, who by his actions and methods of governing these subjects, caused so much misery and lost the confidence of the Armenians.

Most interesting is Rose G. Kingsley's "Order of the Hospital of St. John of Jerusalem" ("Edinboro Review" for October), which traces the history of the order from the days of Constantine to its activities in the present war.

Prof. George L. Kittredge's "A Case of Witchcraft" ("American Historical Review" for October) deals mainly with Devonshire cases under Elizabeth, which cases, he says, include all or most of the typical features of English witchcraft cases.

In the issue of "America" for November 10, A. Hilliard Atteridge writes on "The Cause of the Irish Martyrs" who were put to death for their religion in the days of the Irish persecutions in the Tudor and Stuart ages.

## BOOK REVIEWS

EDITED BY PROFESSOR WAYLAND J. CHASE,  
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

JOHNSON, ROSSITER. *The Fight for the Republic*. New York, G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1917. Pp. viii, 404. \$2.50.

The present war is causing a revival of the study of military history. Students must necessarily obtain much of their detailed military information by reference work. This recent publication, a history of the greatest war waged in this hemisphere, is especially adapted for supplementary reading. It is "a narrative of the more noteworthy events in the War of Secession presenting the great contest in its dramatic aspects." The book has several admirable features. Its chapter divisions by battles and campaigns makes it possible for the student to read understandingly this or that chapter without digesting the entire book. The military information is lucidly given. Each battle or campaign is accompanied by excellent maps, showing in detail the positions and movements of the armies. The personal incidents introduced here and there attract the immature student to whom bare military operations may not at first appeal. The book is well-bound and printed on glossless paper in bold type.

The great criticism of the book is that it is written entirely from the Northern standpoint, in the spirit of '61; not that the military facts are distorted to please the Northern reader, but that credit given to the Army of the Confederate States and its supporters is conspicuously lacking. The introduction, a summary of the political events preceding the war, presents the South entirely as the unprovoked aggressor. Little sympathy is shown for our Confederate brothers, no word of admiration is given for Lee at Appomattox, no expression of regret in the two chapters on Sherman's invasion of the South, no deprecatory statement about Sherman's "bummers" except the scant recognition that "no doubt the foragers exceeded their instructions in some instances." At times the author apparently tries to vindicate the tactics and valor of the Union forces. Of course, there is no need of this. Praise of the Confederate army and its commander would not detract from the glory of the Union arms. It seems a pity that fifty years after the close of the fratricidal war such a complete and convenient one-volume history of the war could not have been written in a more impartial and conciliatory manner. The tone is disappointing even to a student bred in Yankee New England.

WAYNE EDWARD DAVIS.

The Mercersburg Academy.

THE WAR OF DEMOCRACY: THE ALLIES' STATEMENT. Chapters of the Fundamental Significance of the Struggle for a New Europe. Prepared by Rt. Hon. Viscount Bryce, and others. New York, Doubleday, Page & Co., 1917.

The second part of the title is somewhat misleading, for while the book contains statements more or less official and

authoritative, by various British, French and Belgian statesmen and scholars who present the aims of their own nations, of Serbia and of other small States, yet there is nothing from Italy or about Italy's aspirations, and nothing at all concerning the ambitions of monarchical or of republican Russia. These omissions may partially be explained at least by the obvious fact that none of the articles in the compilation were prepared in 1917, that only a few belong to 1916, and that the greater number are dated 1915. Some of the material has been in print before, either in magazines, in newspapers, in the pamphlets issued by the Oxford University Press, or elsewhere. Little of it is really new or fresh, and much of it, such as Mr. Balfour's remarks about the Navy and the War and Mr. Lloyd-George's interview in the "Secolo" are quite "old-sounding" to us. The chapters of interest, we would say, are those written by Sir Edward Grey on "Great Britain's Measures Against German Trade," by M. Henri Hauser on "Economic Germany," by G. M. Trevelyan on the "Serbians and Austria," and by M. Helmer, of Alsace, on "German Rule in That Reichsland." The first of these, together with the articles on "Belgic Neutrality and Germans in Belgium," and the death of Edith Cavell might give some useful notes for a student of international law. Nothing in the compilation that is very definite is at all official, and nothing that is at all official is very definite. It can not then be fairly called the "Allies' Statement," though it does somewhat successfully bring out the significant issues of the great struggle, thereby justifying to this extent the explanation of its purpose given on its title page. It is a question, therefore, how far a well-stocked library may need this book, especially if the library in question has available material on the subjects of the stronger articles in this compilation; a small library without much of a war collection might easily find a use for it. There is no index and the only map inserted is a roughly sketched one.

ARTHUR I. ANDREWS.

## The History Teacher's Magazine

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CHANGE OF ADDRESS. Both the old and the new address must be given when a change of address is ordered.

ADVERTISING RATES furnished upon application.

THORNDIKE, LYNN. *History of Medieval Europe*. Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1917. Pp. xxi, 682. \$2.75.

Designed for the undergraduate and general reader, this book embodies the conclusions respecting emphasis and content that ten years' experience in teaching medieval history to freshmen at Western Reserve University has brought the author. The subject of medieval Europe is treated "as a whole and made to hang upon a single thread," and the military and the dynastic aspects of political history are subordinated to accounts of economic and social progress. More attention is given than in previous treatises of this sort to the states of central and eastern Europe because those regions are the ancestral homes of our many citizens of Slav and Magyar stock. A few of his chapters as that on the barbarian invasions seem to lack adequacy of organization, and mental confusion rather than order for the reader results. But in general the author's literary style is effective and attractive, for he is both lucid and interesting, introducing advantageously into his narrative both anecdotal and other human-interest elements. With various helps for the reader the book is well supplied; each chapter closes with a list of specific readings, and for more extended bibliographies the reader is given a page of references under the label, "List of Guides in Historical Reading." Exercises and problems are set for the guidance of the student in the use of some of this reference material, and a six-page "Chronological Table" assists him to keep his time sense correct. Of the twenty-four maps many are out of the ordinary as to subject matter and all are serviceable. The book is neither designed nor suitable for high-school use as a text, but is admirably suited for reference work for high-school pupils. For this use a superlative help is afforded by the forty-one pages of index in which the principal references are black lettered.

WOOLF, CECIL W. SIDNEY. *Bartolus of Sassoferrato, His Position in the History of Medieval Political Thought*. Cambridge University Press, 1913. Pp. xxiv, 414. \$2.50.

This learned work, which contains an excellent bibliography (pp. xiii-xix), was awarded the Thirwall Prize in 1913. It is a discursive endeavor, instigated by Dr. Figgis, to extract from the legal writings of a once celebrated fourteenth-century legist the political theories implicit in his thought. The book is of real interest to students of medieval law—a subject of fascination and value, but its direct light upon medieval political theory may be surmised from the author's statement that Bartolus devoted "his political thought, in all its most valuable aspects, wholly to topics in which the spiritual power does not enter" (p. 211).

G. C. SELLERY.

University of Wisconsin.

HAZEN, CHARLES DOWNER; THAYER, WILLIAM ROSCOE; AND LORD, ROBERT HOWARD. *Three Peace Congresses of the Nineteenth Century*.

COOLIDGE, ARCHIBALD CARY. *Claimants to Constantinople*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1917. Pp. 93. 75 cents.

The essays in this little volume were read at the meeting of the American Historical Association at the close of 1916. They do not purport to be complete accounts in full detail. But the authors do present interesting and brilliantly written pictures of many important phases of the three great peace conferences. The last essay is a remarkably good summary of the immediate past and present situation with regard to Constantinople. All the essays are written by

men of high standing in the historical profession. The book is well worth purchase by librarians, and may be used to advantage in high school classes.

CLARENCE PERKINS.

Ohio State University.

OGG, FREDERICK AUSTIN. *Economic Development of Modern Europe*. The Macmillan Company, 1917. Pp. xvi, 657. \$2.50.

The progressive teacher either of modern European history or of economics will welcome this volume, and will find it supplies much of the concrete description of conditions with which he will like to replace the drum and trumpet history that is now passing. Had more economics and less drum and trumpet history been taught during the last quarter century in England and America, we should be far more able to meet the necessities which our war for democracy has now imposed upon us. To wage war, economic soundness is more important than Chauvinistic ambition.

The major portion of the book is devoted to the nineteenth century, the changes in economic conditions between the middle ages and modern times being presented in about one hundred pages. This transitional exposition is called Part I. Part II describes agriculture, trade, transportation, and industry; Part III, the movement and growth of population and of labor organization and legislation; Part IV of socialism and social insurance. At the end of each chapter are several pages of selected references to the literature of the subject treated in the chapter; throughout the book are helpful footnotes; and at the end are fifteen pages of index.

Such a work as this will give real aid to those who would have us discuss economic and social problems frankly and fully, but with our feet on the ground of solid information, however far into idealism our heads may reach. There is no greater danger to sound education in America than that which comes from the large number of teachers in colleges and schools who are printing a different sort of work, a statement of what they would like to see society become; a statement formulated with no reference whatever to the limitations which all the past history of man has placed on what reasonable people believe the present man and his society are capable of.

EDGAR DAWSON.

Hunter College, New York City.

ORTON, C. W. PREVITE. *Outlines of Medieval History*. New York, G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1917. Pp. 585. \$2.75.

In these days when publishers label a volume of twelve hundred pages a "Short History," we doubtless should expect that "Outlines" would mean more than a brief sketch or syllabus and be prepared to find that this book is not a compendium but a close-packed narrative of nearly six hundred pages. The author, a Fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge, whose earlier work, "The Early History of the House of Savoy," attested his erudition, has adopted for this work the conventional limitations for the medieval period, 395 and 1492, and has followed convention, too, in his selection of material, the political phases of the subject receiving the principal emphasis. The book is scholarly rather than popular in treatment with respect to both language and ideas, and the anecdotal possibilities of historical narrative are not attempted in the least. For these reasons, though the quality of its scholarship is excellent, it is not as good as some other treatises as supplementary reading for high school pupils. More advanced students will find it a valuable aid, rendered more helpful by its twenty-five pages of index and seven double page maps.

TRIMBLE, WILLIAM. *Introductory Manual for the Study and Reading of Agrarian History*. Fargo, N. D., 1917. Pp. 47. 35 cents.

This list of references and suggestions for a survey of the history of agriculture from the earliest times to the present is divided into three parts. The first of these deals with ancient and medieval agriculture, the latter being treated as a whole and the former by regions and periods. Of many of the works cited in these and the succeeding lists a few words of critical appraisal are given. Part two is concerned with the modern period in the sections of the agricultural world outside our own country, with which part three has to do. This last section, dealing with the United States, provides material for a more detailed study than the earlier sections have done, and the references are classified under a dozen headings. Though the author declares the work tentative and incomplete, it is sufficient to display a comprehensive grasp of the literature of this aspect of history, and to be a substantial help to those who work in its field.

GARRETT, MITCHELL BENNETT. *The French Colonial Question, 1789-1791. Dealings of the Constituent Assembly with Problems Arising from the Revolution in the West Indies*. Ann Arbor, Mich.: George Wahr, 1916. Pp. iv, 167. \$1.25.

This book appears to be a doctoral dissertation prepared after extensive research, both in America and Europe. The author was unlucky enough to have delved very deeply into a subject which another person was studying. The other person published the results of her research first, and so left the present author a chance to show his erudition only on a side line rather than his main subject, the life of Barnave. This was a real misfortune, for the quality of the present book suggests that the author could have done very well on the broader subject. The book is a good contribution to the history of slavery and of the French Revolution in the West Indies, but its subject is too restricted for use as a high school reference book. Hence it is not recommended for purchase by school librarians.

CLARENCE PERKINS.

Ohio State University.

HAZEN, CHARLES DOWNER. *Modern European History*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1917. Pp. xiv, 650. \$2.00.

Professor Hazen's Europe since 1815 has already won him such staunch friends among teachers of history and the general public that this briefer work covering the broader field of the last two hundred years will receive a warm welcome. The present work has the merits of the earlier one. It is scholarly and accurate, well-organized, and very readable and interesting. The author's statements are never hazy or confused. In addition, he has started with a survey of the eighteenth century, and so given us a book that can be used for high school reading more readily than the earlier one. The only serious objection to the work is its failure to lay enough stress on the industrial revolution and the social and economic side of history in general. Political history receives the emphasis. The book contains a large number of excellent illustrations. It will be very useful for high school students and librarians should provide duplicate copies.

CLARENCE PERKINS.

Ohio State University.

Mr. D. J. Jardine's experiences, "At the Coronation of the Empress Uizero Zanditu of Abyssinia" ("Blackwood's" for October), are all the more interesting because they are prefaced by a brief historical sketch of this little-known country.

#### HISTORY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATIONS.

Additions to and corrections of the following list of associations are requested by the editor of the MAGAZINE:

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Teachers' Historical Association of Western Pennsylvania—Secretary, Anna Ankrom, 1108 Franklin Avenue, Wilkesburg, Pa.

West Virginia History Teachers' Association—President, Charles E. Hedrick, Glenville; secretary, Dora Newman, of Fairmont.

Wisconsin History Teachers' Association—Chairman, A. C. Kingsford, Baraboo High School; secretary, Miss Amelia C. Ford, Milwaukee-Downer College, Milwaukee.

#### BOOKS ON HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT PUBLISHED IN THE UNITED STATES FROM SEPTEMBER 29 TO OCTOBER 27, 1917.

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH.D.

##### AMERICAN HISTORY.

Academy of Political Science. The foreign relations of the United States. 2 vols. N. Y.: The Academy. 331, 129 pp. \$1.50.

Blaisdell, A. F., and Ball, F. K. American History for Little Folks. Boston: Little Brown. 138 pp. 75 cents, net.

Buck, Solon J. Illinois in 1818. Springfield, Ill.: Ill. Centennial Com. 362 pp. (5 pp. bibls.).

Burton, M. Agnes, editor. Manuscripts from the Boston Historical Collection, No. 1-4. Detroit, Mich.: C. M. Burton. 144 pp. 50 cents.

Clark, Charles E. My fifty years in the navy. Boston: Little Brown. 346 pp. \$2.50, net.

Dickson, Harris. The unpopular history of the United States by Uncle Sam himself. [Some of the less admirable pages of American history.] N. Y.: Stokes. 162 pp. 75 cents, net.

Faris, J. T. Old Roads Out of Philadelphia. Phila.: Lippincott. 327 pp. \$4.00, net.

Leffman, Henry. The true story of the Declaration of Independence. Phila.: City Hist. Soc., 1623 Chestnut St. 21-35 pp. 25 cents, net.

Lippincott, Horace M. Early Philadelphia; its people, life and progress. Phila.: Lippincott. 339 pp. \$6.00, net.

Pearson, C. C. The readjuster movement in Virginia. New Haven, Ct.: Yale Univ. 191 pp. \$2.00, net.

Peixotto, E. C. A revolutionary pilgrimage. N. Y.: Scribner. 369 pp. \$2.50, net.

Peterson, A. E., and Edwards, G. W. New York as an eighteenth century municipality. N. Y.: Longmans. 199 + 205 pp. (bibls.). \$4.00 spec. net.

Samuel Bissell Memorial Library Assn. Twinsburg, Ohio, 1817-1917. Twinsburg, Ohio: The Association. 533 pp. \$5.00, net.

Talkington, H. L. Outline for the Study of Idaho. Boise, Idaho: State Bd. of Education. 20 pp.

Thompson, C. Manfred. History of the United States. Boston: B. H. Sanborn & Co. 540 pp. \$1.60.

Zahm, J. A. The quest of El Dorado. [Collection of legends about El Dorado.] N. Y.: Appleton. 260 pp. \$1.50, net.

##### ANCIENT HISTORY.

Cæsar, C. Julius. The Gallic War. [Loeb Class. Lib.] N. Y.: Putnam. 619 pp. \$1.50, net.

Dio, C. Cassius. Dio's Roman History. Vol. 5. [Loeb Class. Lib.] N. Y.: Putnam. 525 pp. \$1.50, net.

##### ENGLISH HISTORY.

Hammond, M. O. Canadian Confederation and its leaders. N. Y.: Doran. 333 pp. \$2.50, net.

Russell, G. W., and others. The Irish home-rule convention. N. Y.: Macmillan. 183 pp. 50 cents.

##### EUROPEAN HISTORY.

Collier, Theodore F. A syllabus of the revolutionary and Napoleonic era. Providence, R. I.: Kensmore Press. 36 pp. (3 pp. bibls.). 60 cents.

Jones, Stinton. Russia in Revolution. N. Y.: McBride. 279 pp. \$1.50, net.

Marriott, J. A. R. The Eastern question. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. 456 pp. (bibls.). \$5.50.

Schierbrand, Wolf von. Austria-Hungary. N. Y.: Stokes. 352 pp. \$3.00, net.

##### THE GREAT WAR.

American Red Cross. War Council. The work in Europe of the American Red Cross. Wash., D. C.: (The Author). 68 pp.

Bell, F. M. The first Canadians in France. N. Y.: Doran. 308 pp. \$1.35, net.

Clifton, Shelton A. On the road from Mons. N. Y.: Dutton. 163 pp. \$1.25, net.

Destree, Jules. Britain in arms. N. Y.: John Lane. 292 pp. \$1.50, net.

Gerard, James W. My Four Years in Germany. N. Y.: Doran. 448 pp. \$2.00, net.

Gibson, Hugh. A journal from our Legation in Belgium. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday, Page. 360 pp. \$2.50, net.

Goltz, H. von der. My adventures as a German secret agent. N. Y.: McBride. 288 pp. \$1.50, net.

Kettle, T. M. The ways of war. [Articles showing Irish attitude to the war.] N. Y.: Scribner. 239 pp. \$2.75, net.

McClintock, Alex. Best o' Luck. [Author's experiences in Flanders.] N. Y.: Doran. 171 pp. \$1.00, net.

Mahoney, H. C. Sixteen months in four German prisons. N. Y.: McBride. 300 pp. \$1.50, net.

Martin, E. S. The diary of a nation; the war and how we got into it. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday, Page. 407 pp. \$1.50, net.

Murray, Col. A. M. The "fortnightly" history of the war. N. Y.: Stokes. 403 pp. \$3.00, net.

Out of their own mouths; utterances of German rulers, statesmen [etc.]. N. Y.: Appleton. 254 pp. \$1.00, net.

- Simonds, Frank H. *History of the World War. Vol. 1.* Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday, Page. 393 pp. \$3.50.
- Stevenson, W. Yorke. *At the front in a flivver.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 257 pp. \$1.25, net.
- Toynbee, A. J. *The murderous tyranny of the Turks.* N. Y.: Doran. 26 pp. 5 cents.
- Viviani, René, and Joffre, J. J. C. *Addresses in the United States.* Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday, Page. 149 pp. \$1.25, net.
- Strong, Theron G. Joseph H. Choate. N. Y.: Dodd Mead. 390 pp. \$3.00, net.
- Rye, J. B., and Groser, H. G. *Kitchener in his own words.* N. Y.: Stokes. 588 pp. \$3.50 net.
- Hamilton, J. G., and Hamilton, M. T. *The life of Robert E. Lee for boys and girls.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 209 pp. \$1.25, net.
- Bland, J. O. P. *Li Hung Chang.* N. Y.: Holt. 327 pp. \$2.00, net.

#### MEDIEVAL HISTORY.

- Previté Orton, C. W. *Outlines of medieval history.* N. Y.: Putnam. 585 pp. \$2.75, net.
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# Index to The History Teacher's Magazine

Volume VIII, January to December, 1917

- Adams, V. A., review of Robinson's *The Days of Alkibiades*, 203.
- Agricultural Revolution, Importance of, 342-344.
- Aims of history instruction, in vocational high schools, 98-100.
- Aims in social science teaching, 4, 10, 18-21.
- Alliance, The Holy, Its Origins and Influence, 337-341.
- Alliance, Triple, origin of, 353.
- American Historical Association, report of Cincinnati meetings, 64; officers and committees for 1917, 65; report of conference upon the field and method of elementary college course, 111-128; Philadelphia meetings, 354.
- American Historical Review, 88, 295.
- American History in Secondary Schools, status of in Wisconsin, 132-133; reconstruction of, 218-219, 260-261, 290-296, 351-353.
- Americanization of Immigrants, conference upon, 31.
- American Political Science Review, 81.
- American School Peace League, prizes in 1918, 315.
- Ames, Herman V., How Far Should the Teaching of History and Civics Be Used as a Means of Encouraging Patriotism, 188-192.
- Ancient History, in secondary schools, visit to Babylon, 79-81; reconstruction of, 214-215, 256-257, 290-291, 349-350; in a technical high school, 347; illustrative material for blackboard work, 253-254.
- Andrews, A. I., review of Gibbons' *The New Map of Africa*, 320; review of Bryce's *The War of Democracy*, 362.
- Arbitration, international, 151-153.
- Armstrong, R. D., Some Aspects of Supervised Study in History, 52-59.
- Ashley, R. L., review of Hamilton's *Current Economic Problems*, 235; of Bogart and Thompson's *Readings in the Economic History of the United States*, 236.
- Ayre, Henrietta, A History Game, 69.
- Babylon, A Visit to, 79-81.
- Balch, E. A., Elementary Course in the Small College, 118.
- Baldwin, J. F., The Elementary Course at Vassar College, 114-115.
- Bernhardi, F. von, quoted, 333-334.
- Bibliographies, of recent European history, 196-197; of readings on the war, 197-198; of American historical novels dealing with economic history, 226-231; of illustrative material for blackboard work, 253-255; for the study of nations in secondary schools, 268-274; of historical writings in 1916, 275. See also Recent Historical Publications, and Periodical Literature.
- Blackboard Work in History Teaching, 253-255.
- Board of Education, English, 67.
- "Bobbie and the War," 177-182.
- Bogart, E. L., Historical Novels in American History, 226-231.
- Bonham, M. L., Jr., communication upon college introductory course, 276; Freshman History Course at Louisiana State University, 345-347.
- Book Reviews, arranged alphabetically under the authors' names:
- Allen, George H., *The Great War*, I, 37.
- Allen, G. H., and others, *The Great War*, Vol. II, 319.
- Altachul, C., *The American Revolution in Our School Textbooks*, 319.
- Andrews, M. P., *Brief History of the United States*, 168.
- Ashley, R. L., *The New Civics*, 235.
- Aurner, C. R., *History of Education in Iowa*, 70.
- Barker, J. E., *The Foundations of Germany*, 168.
- Barnes, J., *The Hero of Stony Point*, 203.
- Beca, Colonel, *Development of Infantry Tactics*, 72.
- Bogart, E. L., and Thompson, C. M., *Readings in the Economic History of the United States*, 236.
- Breasted, J. H., *Ancient Times*, 72.
- Breasted, J. H., Huth, C. F., Jr., and Harding, S. H., *Ancient-Medieval-Modern History Maps*, 237.
- Bryan, W. B., *A History of the National Capital*, Vol. II, 137.
- Bryce, Viscount, *The War of Democracy*, 362.
- Burgess, J. W., *The Administration of President Hayes*, 279.
- Callahan, James M., *Semi-Centennial History of West Virginia*, 135.
- Carlton, R., *The New Purchase*, 136.
- Chapman, C. E., *The Founding of Spanish California*, 204.
- Charnwood, G. R. B., *Abraham Lincoln*, 37.
- Chitwood, O. P., *The Immediate Causes of the Great War*, 319.
- Corwin, E. S., *French Policy and the American Alliance*, 72.
- De Souza, Charles, and MacFall, H., *Germany in Defeat*, 71.
- Duggan, S. P., *Students' Textbook in the History of Education*, 103.
- Dynes, S. A., *Socializing the Child*, 236.
- Elliot, H., Herbert Spencer, 202.
- Fite, E. D., *History of the United States*, 234.
- Fordham, M., *Short History of English Rural Life*, 36.
- Forman, S. E., *First Lessons in American History*, 235.
- Fowler, H. N., *The History of Sculpture*, 135.
- Garrett, M. B., *The French Colonial Question*, 364.
- Gibbons, H. A., *The New Map of Africa*, 320.
- Goebel, Julius, Jr., *Recognition Policy of the United States*, 35.
- Griffis, W. E., *The Mikado: Institution and Person*, 279.
- Hall, C. R., *Andrew Johnson, Military Governor of Tennessee*, 234.
- Hall, Jennie, *Our Ancestors in Europe*, 73.
- Hamilton, W. H., editor, *Current Economic Problems*, 235.
- Hawlin, A. D. F., *The History of Ornament, Ancient and Medieval*, 135.
- Hanna, M. A., *The Trade of the Delaware District*, 276.
- Haworth, P. L., *America in Ferment*, 101.
- Hayes, C. J. H., *Political and Social History of Modern Europe*, 280.
- Hazen, C. D., *The French Revolution and Napoleon*, 203.
- Hazen, C. D., Thayer, W. R., Lord, R. H., Coolidge, A. C., *Three Peace Congresses of the Nineteenth Century*, 363.
- Hazen, C. D., *Modern European History*, 364.
- Hodges, H. G., *The Doctrine of Intervention*, 102.
- Holcombe, A. N., *State Government in the United States*, 169.
- Howard, Daniel, *American History, Government and Institutions*, 71.
- Jeffries, J., *War Diary of An American Woman*, 235.
- Johnson, Rossiter, *The Fight for the Republic*, 362.
- Kitson, H. D., *How to Use Your Mind*, 136.
- Knowlton, D. C., and Howe, S. B., *Essentials in Modern European History*, 279.
- Krehbiel, E., *Nationalism, War and Society*, 203.
- Krueger, F. K., *Government and Politics of the German Empire*, 35.
- Lipson, E., *Europe in the Nineteenth Century*, 137.
- Lord, R. H., *The Second Partition of Poland*, 136.
- Macdonald, J. R. M., *A History of France*, 70.
- Mace, W. H., *Washington: A Virginia Cavalier*, 70.
- MacVeagh, F. D., *Fountains of Papal Rome*, 104.
- Mallet, C., *Impressions and Experiences of a French Trooper*, 101.
- Mathews, J. M., *Principles of American State Administration*, 280.
- Mathews, N., *Municipal Charters*, 35.
- McCarthy, C., Swan, F., and McMullin, Jennie, *Elementary Civics*, 70.
- Moses, Belle, Paul Revere, 203.
- Newton, C. C., *Once Upon a Time in Connecticut*, 136.

## BOOK REVIEWS—Continued.

## BOOK REVIEWS—Continued.

- Nida, W. L., *Story of the World War for Young People*, 320.
- Ogg, Frederic, *The Economic Development of Modern Europe*, 363.
- Orton, C. W. P., *Outlines of Medieval History*, 363.
- Palmer, F., *My Second Year of the War*, 280.
- Pearson, F. B., *Reveries of a Schoolmaster*, 321.
- Reed, T. H., *Form and Functions of American Government*, 101.
- Riddell, W. R., *The Constitution of Canada*, 319.
- Roberts, P., *Civics for Coming Americans*, 321.
- Robinson, C., *Continental Europe, 1270-1598*, 280.
- Robinson, C. E., *The Days of Alkibiades*, 203.
- Robinson, J. H., *Medieval and Modern Times*, 103.
- Russell, W. F., *Economy in Secondary Education*, 37.
- Schaeffer, H., *Social Legislation of the Primitive Semites*, 36.
- Schevill, F., *The Making of Modern Germany*, 36.
- Schmitt, B. E., *England and Germany*, 36.
- Seymour, Charles, *The Diplomatic Background of the War*, 202.
- Smith, G. B., *Outlines of European History, 1814-1914*, 101.
- Smith, L. P., *The English Language*, 103.
- Stephens, Kate, *The Mastering of Mexico*, 71.
- Strylenski, C., *The Eighteenth Century*, 136.
- Tedder, A. W., *The Navy of the Restoration*, 168.
- Thorndike, Lynn, *History of Medieval Europe*, 363.
- Towne, E. T., *Social Problems*, 35.
- Trimble, W., *Introductory Manual for the Study and Reading of Agrarian History*, 364.
- White, J. W., *Textbook of the War for Americans*, 70.
- Woodburn, J. A., edition of Carlton's *The New Purchase*, 136.
- Woodburn, J. A., and Moran, T. F., *Introduction to American History*, 168.
- Woolf, C. W. S., *Bartolus of Sassoferrato*, 363.
- Wright, C. H. C., *History of the Third French Republic*, 321.
- Young, A. N., *The Single Tax Movement in the United States*, 73.
- Botsford, G. W., *Ancient Democracy and the Laboring Class*, 349-350.
- Boy Scouts of America, *educational department*, 67.
- Breasted, J. H., *Ancient Egypt and the Modern World*, 214-215.
- Bureau of Education, *United States, Bulletin No. 28, 1916, on social studies in secondary schools*, 3-25; *reading course in American history*, 134; *pamphlet on history and the great war*, 213; *lessons on community and national life*, 315; *pamphlet on military training in schools*, 316.
- Cannon, H. L., review of Chapman's *The Founding of Spanish California*, 204; review of Griffiths' *The Mikado*, 279.
- Catholic schools, *textbooks for*, 317.
- Changing Emphasis in European History in California High Schools, by G. Robinson, 85-88.
- Chase, Wayland J., editor of *Book Reviews*, 35, 70, 101, 135, 168, 202, 234, 279, 319, 362; *The Status of History in the High Schools of Wisconsin*, 132-133.
- Chicago, University of, *elementary history course in*, 120-122.
- Citizenship, *part of social science teachers in training in*, 3.
- Civics, *relation to history instruction in grades*, 14; *election reproductions*, 69; *training in good citizenship*, 99-100; *suggestions for the study of principles*, 222-226; *a practical method of teaching elections*, 305-306; *lessons on community and national life*, 315. See *Community Civics*.
- Class-room suggestions, *reproduction of national elections*, 69, 305-306; *a history game*, 69.
- Cleven, N. A. N., *Latin American History in Our Secondary Schools*, 219-222.
- Collateral Reading, *in college elementary course*, 118-128; *what to attempt and how to test in secondary schools*, 129-131.
- College Entrance Examination Board, *specimen answers*, 59; *questions in history in June and September, 1917*, 308-313.
- Colleoni Statue at Newark, N. J., 77.
- Colleges, *History in, historical geography*, 26-29; *contemporary history at Columbia*, 82-85; *field and method of elementary college course*, 111-128; *accomplished results and future problems in freshman history*, 111-113; *the field of the elementary course*, 113-114; *elementary course at Vassar*, 114-115; *scope and purpose of elementary course*, 116-117; *field of instruction*, 117-118; *elementary course in small college*, 118; *method of the elementary course*, 118-128; *Princeton laboratory system*, 122-123; *elementary course in Columbia*, 125-126; *methods in small college*, 128; *historical novels in economic history*, 226-231; *place of English history*, 276; *conclusions concerning Dartmouth freshmen*, 277; *Freshman History Course at Louisiana State University*, 345-347.
- Columbia University, *elementary history course in*, 125-126.
- Commercial Course in High Schools, *history in*, 97-98.
- Committee on Public Information, 231; *publications of*, 314-315.
- Community Civics, *in grades*, 7-9, 9-15.
- Construction for History in the Grades, 60-63.
- Contemporary History at Columbia University, 82-85.
- Coulomb, Charles A., *list of recent historical publications*, 38, 73, 105, 138, 169, 205, 238, 281, 321 365.
- Courses of study, *in social sciences*, 3-25; *in Philadelphia elementary schools*, 277-278.
- Cross, A. L., *Suggested Points for Emphasis in the Tudor Period*, 291-292.
- Current Events, *methods of teaching in colleges*, 82-85; *use of magazines*, 134, 160-161.
- Cycles in history teaching, 5.
- Davis, W. E., review of Johnson's *The Fight for the Republic*, 362.
- Dawson, Edgar, review of Young's *Single Tax Movement*, 73; of Reed's *American Government*, 101; Krehbiel's *Nationalism, War and Society*, 203; of Mathews' *Principles of American State Administration*, 280; *A Political Generalization*, 222-226; review of Ogg's *Economic Development of Modern Europe*, 363.
- Democracy, *American, course in, problems of*, 23-25.
- Democracy and War, by J. G. Randall, 329-336.
- Discoveries, *course in history of*, 31.
- Doctoral Dissertations, *list of printed in 1916*, 67.
- Duncan, D. S., *Use of Magazines in History Teaching*, 160-161.
- Dunn, Arthur W., editor of report on social studies, 3.
- Dutcher, G. M., *Summer Reading on the War*, 197-198.
- Dynes, S. A., review of Andrews' *Brief History of the United States*, 168; of Woodburn and Moran's *Introduction to American History*, 168; of Forman's *First Lessons in American History*, 235.
- Eckhardt, C. C., *War and Peace in the Light of History*, 43-46.
- Economic History of United States, *Historical novels upon*, 226-231.
- Elections, *reproduced in schools*, 69; *practical method of teaching*, 305-306.
- Elementary schools, *history, geography, and civics in*, 5-9; *history in*, 31; *construction work in history*, 60-63; *new course in Philadelphia schools*, 277-278; *practical work in*, 306-307.
- [English] Historical Association, *bulletin of*, 275.
- English History in Secondary Schools, *reconstruction of*, 215-217, 257-258, 291-292, 350.
- European History, *two year course in*, 15-23; *changing emphasis in California high schools*, 85-88; *reconstruction of*, 217-218, 258-260, 294-295, 353; *illustrative material for blackboard work*, 255.
- Europe, *influence of the war on history teaching in*, 143-147.
- Examinations, *place of, in history courses*, 301-305; *the College Entrance Board's questions for June and September, 1917*, 308-313; *comprehensive examinations*, 310-313. See *College Entrance Examination Board*.
- Exhibitions, *School, in Newark, N. J.*, 94. See also *Museums*.
- Ferguson, W. S., *The Crisis of Hellenism*, 290-291.
- Fish, Carl R., review of Goebel's *Recognition Policy of United States*, 35; of Charnwood's *Abraham Lincoln*, 37.

- Fishback, M. M., *An Occasional Museum*, 30.
- Fling, F. M., review of Hazen's *French Revolution and Napoleon*, 203.
- Florida History Teachers, 67.
- Foster, H. D., communication upon history courses for Dartmouth College freshmen, 277.
- Frayser, W. A., *The Field of the Elementary College Course*, 113-114.
- Freeman, A., review of Hodges' *Doctrine of Intervention*, 102.
- Game, A History, 69.
- Geography, as a social study, 6-9; historical, in college classes, 26-29, 121, 126.
- George, R. H., *Method in the Elementary Course in College History*, 118-120.
- Gipson, L. H., *Method of the Elementary Course in the Small College*, 128.
- Gould, C. P., *The Required Course in College History*, 123-124.
- Grading History Work, 297-305.
- Greene, E. B., *Suggestions on The Relation of American to European History*, 218-219; *The American Revolution and the British Empire*, 292-294.
- Gutsch, M. R., *Field of Instruction in Elementary College History*, 117-118.
- Hakluyt Exhibit at New York Public Library, 68.
- Hall, W. L., *Current Periodical Articles on the Teaching of History*, 281, 321, 358.
- Harris, Wilmer C., *Methods of Instruction in Elementary College History*, 124.
- Hathaway, W. H., review of Towne's *Social Problems*, 35; *Holcombe's State Government in the United States*, 169; review of Ashley's *The New Civics*, 235.
- Hayes, C. J. H., *Syllabus in Introductory European History*, 26-29; *Elementary College Course in History*, 125-126.
- Hazen, C. D., *Brief List of Books Upon Recent European History*, 196-197.
- Henry, H. M., review of Callahan's *Semi-Centennial History of West Virginia*, 135; of Bryan's *History of the National Capital*, Vol. II, 137.
- Hill, H. C., review of Allen's *The Great War*, I, 37; of White's *Textbook of the War*, 70; of Beca's *Development of Infantry Tactics*, 72; of Haworth's *America in Ferment*, 101.
- History of Discoveries, course in, 31.
- History, How to Study, instructions upon, 54-58.
- "History," magazine entitled, 134, 231.
- History Teachers, and the Great War, 175, 199-201, 204; relation to, 212-213; suggestions for secondary school history, 214-219, 256-261, 290-295; general items, 231-233, 274-276, 315-316; work of national board for historical service, 289; publications of the committee on public information, 314-315.
- History Teachers' Associations, list of, 34, 65, 104, 137, 307, 364. See under the several states and regions.
- History teachers, training in citizenship, 3; the training of, 198.
- History, teaching of, aims of, 17-21; in elementary school and junior high school, 5-9; in high school, 15-25; principles underlying, 17-23; tests of, 18; functioning in the present, 19; type lessons, 19-21; values of history instruction, 46-48.
- Holy Alliance, *The, Its Origins and Influence*, 337-341.
- Hunter, H. Reid, *Ancient History in a Technical High School*, 347-348.
- Illustrative Material, in American History, 48-51; for history in the grades, 60-63; for blackboard work, 253-255.
- Illinois, University of, elementary history in, 127-128.
- Immigrants, education of. See Americanization.
- Indiana History Teachers, 135; revision of secondary school course in history, 135.
- Indianapolis, Ind., course of study in civics, 5.
- International Conferences, lists of, 156-157.
- Internationalism, basis of, 46.
- Iowa History Teachers, 33, 317, 359.
- Jones, Chester Lloyd, review of Krueger's *Government and Politics of German Empire*, 35; of Mathews' *Municipal Charters*, 35; of Riddell's *Constitution of Canada*, 319; of Nida's *Story of the World War*, 320.
- Junior High School, social sciences in, 5-6.
- Kansas History Teachers, 360.
- Kerner, R. J., *The Historic Role of the Slaves*, 294-295.
- Knowlton, D. C., *Historic Features of Newark's 250th anniversary celebration*, 89-95.
- Kuhlmann, C. B., *The Minnesota History Teachers' Syllabus*, 147-149.
- Laboratory Methods of Teaching Contemporary History at Columbia, 82-85; in history course in Princeton, 122-123.
- Larson, L. M., *England before the Norman Conquest*, 215-217.
- Latin-American History in Secondary Schools, 219-222, 296-297.
- League to Enforce Peace, *Historical Light upon*, 150-158.
- Lease, Frank W., review of Robinson's *Medieval and Modern Times*, 103.
- Lecture System, in college history courses, 118-128.
- Libraries, use of. See Collateral Reading.
- Lingelbach, W. E., review of Stryienski's *The Eighteenth Century*, 136; of Lipson's *Europe in the Nineteenth Century*, 137.
- Local History, teaching of state history, 25; conference upon the teaching of, 33; marking of historic sites, 91-93; syllabus of Idaho history, 275.
- Lybyer, A. H., *Method in the Elementary College History Course*, 127.
- Magazines, use of, in history classes, 134, 160-161.
- Map Studies, in college classes, 26-29.
- Maps, Outline, use in college course, 26-29; how to use, 159-160.
- Marking of Historic Sites, in Newark, N. J., 91-93.
- Maryland History Teachers, 361.
- Mathews, L. K., review of Hall's *Andrew Johnson*, 234.
- McDonald, J. G., *Method in the Elementary College History Course*, 126-127.
- McIlwain, C. H., *Medieval England*, 257-258.
- McKinley, A. E., *The War and History Teaching in Europe*, 143-147.
- McLaughlin, A. C., *The Great War: From Spectator to Participant*, 183-187.
- McMurry, D. L., *Source Studies in Elementary College Course*, 124-125.
- Metropolitan Museum, educational work, 32, 317; aids to history teachers, 51.
- Methods in teaching history. See Elementary Schools, Secondary Schools, Colleges.
- "Mexican Review," 32.
- Mexico, report upon educational conditions, 134.
- Middle States and Maryland, Association of History Teachers of, 134, 167; report on training of history teachers, 198; fourteenth annual report, 200; spring meeting, 201; fall meeting, 359.
- Middletown, Conn., course in civics, 12.
- Military History, *A Renaissance in*, 261-263.
- Military Training for Boys, pamphlet on, referred to, 100; in schools, 316.
- Minnesota Day, 31.
- Minnesota History Bulletin, 31.
- Minnesota, new history teachers' syllabus, 147-149.
- Mississippi Valley Historical Association, 167, 200.
- Mississippi Valley Historical Review, 166, 200.
- Monroe Doctrine, the passing of, 192-195; origin of, 340-341.
- Moon, P. T., *Laboratory Methods of Teaching Contemporary History at Columbia University*, 82-85.
- Morehouse, F. M., *Testing Results in History Teaching*, 301-305.
- Munro, D. C., *Suggestions for the Course in Medieval History*, 217-218.
- Museum, Historical, an occasional, 30; Metropolitan Museum, 32; use of, 51; educational work of Metropolitan Museum, 317.
- National Board for Historical Service, 199-201; co-operates with the MAGAZINE, 212-213; articles upon secondary history, 214-219, 256-261, 290-295; activities of, 231-232; summary of work, 289; supplements from, 355; reports upon work, 355-356.
- National Education Association, report of committee on social studies in secondary schools, 3-25.
- National Park Portfolio, 31.
- National Security League, publications of, 276.
- Nations, *The Study of, An Experiment*, by H. E. Tuell, 265-274.
- Navy, Report of Secretary of, upon educational work, 31.
- Newark, N. J., *Historical Features of Anniversary Celebration*, 89-85.
- New England Board for Historical Service, 276.
- New England History Teachers' Association, 167, 315, 317.

- New Jersey, state syllabus in social studies, 67.
- New York State Division of Archives and History, 134.
- New York State Historical Association, meeting of, 25.
- New York State History Teachers, 33, 134.
- Northwestern Association of History Teachers, 32; report on values of history instruction, 46-48.
- Notestein, Wallace, *The Interest of Seventeenth Century England for Students of American Institutions*, 350-351.
- Novels, Historical, in American History, 226-231.
- "Official Bulletin," published by Committee on Public Information, 314-315.
- Ohio History Teachers, 360.
- Oklahoma History Teachers, 32.
- Olmstead, A. T., *A Visit to Babylon*, 79-81; *Old and New in the Near East*, 256-257.
- Outline Map, How to Use It, 159-160.
- "Outlook, The," use of, 134.
- Pacific Coast Branch of American Historical Association, 32.
- Pageants, Historical, at Kirksville, Mo., 25; in Newark, N. J., 94; bibliography of, 100.
- Patriotism, Teaching of, in French and English Schools, 143-147; should history and civics be used for teaching, 188-192.
- Patterns, for history in the grades, 62-63.
- Patton, E. E., *A Method of Teaching Practical Civics*, 305-306.
- Peace, International, 45-46; League to Enforce, 67; Historical Light upon the League to Enforce, 150-158; Proposals and Programs, 295.
- Pennsylvania History Teachers, 67.
- Pennsylvania, University of, conference in history, 166.
- Periodical Articles on the Teaching of History, 281, 321, 358.
- Periodical Literature, edited by G. B. Richards, 34, 66, 105, 131, 149, 161, 205, 237, 318, 361.
- Perkins, Clarence, review of Schevill's *Modern Germany*, 36; of Schmitt's *England and Germany*, 36; of Macdonald's *History of France*, 70; of De Souza's *Germany in Defeat*, 71; of Mallet's *Impressions and Experiences of a French Trooper*, 101; of Lord's *Second Partition of Poland*, 136; of Barker's *Foundations of Germany*, 168; of Seymour's *Diplomatic Background of the War*, 202; of Jeffries' *War Diary of an American Woman*, 235; of Hayes' *Political and Social History of Modern Europe*, 280; of Palmer's *My Second Year of the War*, 280; of Allen's *The Great War*, Vol. II, 319; of Chitwood's *The Immediate Causes of the Great War*, 319; of Madelin's *The French Revolution*, 320; of Wright's *History of the Third French Republic*, 321; review of Hazen, Thayer, Lord, Coolidge, *Three Peace Congresses of the Nineteenth Century*, 363; of Garrett's *French Colonial Question*, 364; of Hazen's *Modern European History*, 364.
- Philadelphia Chamber of Commerce, *An American's Pledge*, 357.
- Philadelphia, course of study in civics, 5; School Mobilization Committee, 232, 315; new course of study for history in elementary schools, 277-278.
- Pictorial Documents Illustrating American History, by F. Weitenkampf, 48-51.
- Pledges, for citizens, 357.
- Political Generalization, A, by E. Dawson, 222-226.
- Political Science, suggestions for course in, 222-226.
- Preparedness for war, 44-45.
- Princeton University, laboratory system in elementary history, 122-123.
- Problem Method, of history teaching, 54; in examinations, 303-304.
- Progress Within the Subject Applied to High School History, 297-305.
- Public Service, university training for, conference upon, 33.
- Publications, Recent Historical, listed by C. A. Coulomb, 38, 73, 105, 138, 169, 205, 238, 281, 321, 365.
- Purcell, H. E., *Learning History by Doing*, 306-307.
- Ramsdell, C. W., review of Burgess' *Administration of President Hayes*, 279.
- Randall, J. G., *Democracy and War*, 329-336.
- Reading Course in American History, 134.
- Readings, Collateral, for history classes, in New York, 100. See Collateral.
- Recent Historical Publications, listed by C. A. Coulomb, 38, 73, 105, 138, 169, 205, 238, 281, 321, 365.
- Recent History, how far to be taught, 31; emphasis upon, in California high schools, 86-88; use of magazines, 160-161; Brief List of Books upon, 196-197.
- Relation of the History Curriculum to Vocational Training in the High Schools, by W. P. Shortridge, 96-100.
- Reports from the Historical Field, 31, 67, 100, 134, 166, 200, 231, 275, 317, 358.
- Reviews of Books. See Book Reviews.
- Richards, Gertrude B., Periodical Literature, 34, 66, 105, 149, 161, 205, 237, 318, 361.
- Robertson, W. S., *The Holy Alliance*, 337-341.
- Secondary schools, history in, report of National Education Association upon, 3-25; changing emphasis in European history in California, 85-88; relation of history curriculum to vocational training, 96-100; what to attempt in collateral reading and how to test it, 129-131; status in high schools of Wisconsin, 132-133; revision of course of study in Indiana schools, 135; new Minnesota history teachers' syllabus, 147; reorganization of material in the light of the war, 214-219, 256-261, 290-295, 349-353; Latin-American history in, 219-222, 296-297; Blackboard Work in, 253-255; the study of nations, 264-274; progress in the subject, 297-305; grading history work, 297-305; ancient history in a technical high school, 347-348.
- Robinson, G., *Changing Emphasis in European History in California High Schools*, 85-88.
- Root, W. T., review of Corwin's *French Policy and American Alliance*, 72; of Tedder's *Navy of the Restoration*, 168.
- Rural Schools, civics in, 13.
- Sanford, Albert H., review of Mace's *Washington*, 70; of Hall's *Our Ancestors in Europe*, 73; of Moses' *Paul Revere*, 203; of Barnes' *The Hero of Stony Point*, 203; of Dyne's *Socializing the Child*, 236.
- Scott, A. P., *The Passing of Splendid Isolation*, 192-195.
- Sellery, George C., review of Woolf's *Bartolus of Sassoferrato*, 363.
- Seyboldt, R. F., review of Aurner's *History of Education in Iowa*, 70; of Duggan's *Student's Textbooks in the History of Education*, 103.
- Sherwood, H. N., review of Breasted's *Ancient Times*, 72; of MacVeagh's *Fountains of Papal Rome*, 104.
- Shipman, H. R., *Princeton Laboratory System in Elementary History*, 122-123.
- Shortridge, W. P., review of Howard's *American History*, 71; *The Relation of History Curriculum to Vocational Training in the High Schools*, 96-100; review of Smith's *Outlines of European History*, 101; of Fite's *History of the United States*, 234; of Knowlton and Howe's *Essentials in Modern European History*, 279; of Robinson's *Continental Europe, 1270-1598*, 280.
- Shotwell, James F., *The National Board for Historical Service*, 199.
- Show, A. B., Accomplished results and future problems in the teaching of freshman history, 111-113.
- Sioussat, St. G. L., *English Foundations of American Institutional Life*, 260-261.
- Sites, Marking of Historic, in Newark, N. J., 91-93.
- Smith College Studies in History, 134.
- Social Studies in Secondary Education, 3-25; aims in teaching, 4; outline for grades 7-12, 5; New Jersey syllabus on, 67.
- Some Aspects of Supervised Study in History, by R. D. Armstrong, 52-59.
- Source Material, in elementary college course, 124-125; for schools in New York State, 134.
- Study, Supervised, in history, 52-59; instructions to students, 54-58.
- Subject Matter, in history, how organized, 16-17.
- Sullivan, James, *Some Aspects of American Experience (Revolution)*, 351-353.
- Summer Schools, History in, 1917, 162-166, 201-202.
- Supervised Study, in history, 52-59.
- Supplementary Reading. See Collateral Reading.
- Syllabi, Historical, in introductory course at Columbia, 26-29; New Jersey state syllabus on social studies, 67; of United States History, 200; modern European history, 233; upon the history of Idaho, 275; of a graded series

- of lessons in history, 299-300; for modern European history, 317.
- Taylor, Raymond G., The Importance of the Agricultural Revolution, 342-344.
- "Teaching," published by State Normal School at Emporia, Kansas, 31, 134.
- Technical High School, ancient history in, 347-348.
- Testing Results in History Teaching, 301-305.
- Tests for history instruction, 18, 301-305.
- Texas History Teachers, 31.
- Texas History Teachers' Bulletin, 31.
- Textbooks, in college history course, 118-128.
- Thrift, education in, 275.
- Triple Alliance, Origins of, 353.
- Tryon, R. M., Progress Within the Subject Applied to High School History, 297-301.
- Tuell, H. E., The Study of Nations, 264-274.
- Tufts College Teachers' Association, 276, 360.
- Type lessons, in history, 19-21.
- Ullrick, L. F., Latin-American History in the High School, 296.
- University Training for Public Service, conference on, 33.
- Values of History Instruction, report upon, 46-48; in vocational high schools, 98-100.
- Vassar College, elementary history course in, 114-115.
- Violette, E. M., A Renaissance in Military History, 261-263.
- Visit to Babylon, A, by A. T. Olmstead, 79-81.
- Vocational aspects of civics instruction, 11.
- Vocational Training, in High Schools, relation of history to, 96-100; report of a committee upon, 100; influence of war upon, 315.
- Walker, C. H., Method in the Elementary Course in College History, 120-122.
- Wallace, W. L., The Outline Map, How to Use It, 159-160.
- War and Peace in the Light of History, by C. C. Eckhardt, 43-46.
- War and Democracy, 329-336.
- War, the Great, magazine articles upon, 149, 161; lantern slides upon, 166; "Bobbie and the War," 177-182; From Spectator to Participant, 183-187; The Passing of Splendid Isolation, 192-195; bibliographies of, 196-198; and History Teaching in Europe, 143-147; history teacher's relation to, 175, 199-201, 204; relation to, 212-213; suggestions for secondary school history, 214-219, 256-261, 290-295; general items, 231-233, 274-276, 315-316; work of national board for historical service, 289; publications of committee on public information, 314-315; information upon, 274.
- War, the Great, and Schools, in European schools, 143-147; What History Teachers Can Do, 175; "Bobbie and the War," 177-182; From Spectator to Participant, 183-187; How Far Should the Teaching of History and Civics Be Used as a Means of Encouraging Patriotism, 188-192; reorganization of secondary courses, 200; notes upon, 231-233, 274-276, 315-316; outline maps for, 241; renaissance of military history, 261-263; effect upon education, 275; greater emphasis on science, 275; notes upon, 356-358.
- Weitenkampf, F., Pictorial Documents Illustrating American History, 48-51.
- Westergaard, W., American Interest in the West Indies, 248-253.
- Westermann, W. L., review of Schaeffer's Social Legislation of Primitive Semites, 36.
- West Indies, American Interest in, 248-253.
- West Virginia, history teachers, 31.
- Whitney, Mary A., Construction for History in the Grades, 60-63.
- Wisconsin Loyalty Legion, 276.
- Wisconsin, Status of History in the High Schools of, 132-133.
- World Peace Foundation, publications, 67.
- Wrench, J. E., Scope and Purpose of the Elementary Course, 116-117.
- Wuesthoff, W. W., What Should We Attempt in Collateral Reading and How Shall We Test It? 129-131; Black-board Work in History Teaching, 253-255.

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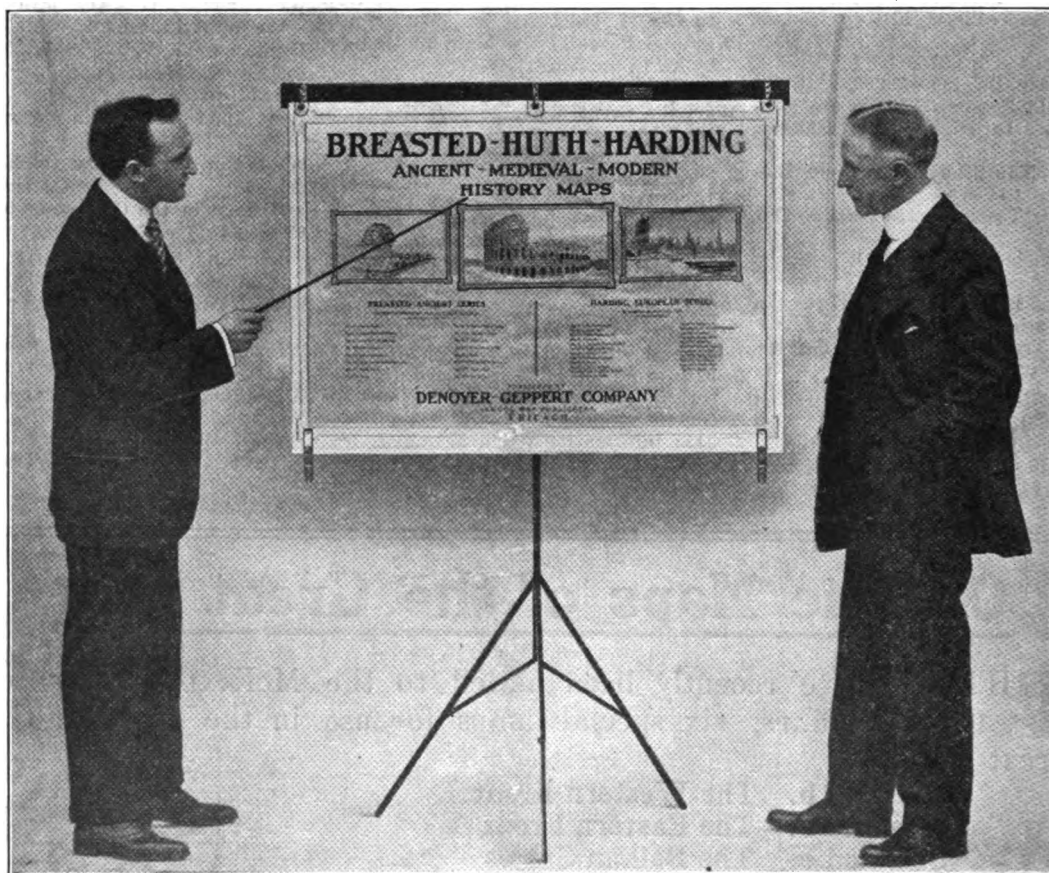
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